THE LIBRARIES

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

UNIVERSAL

GEOGRAPHY,

OR

A DESCRIPTION

OF

ALL THE PARTS OF THE WORLD,

ON A NEW PLAN,

ACCORDING TO THE GREAT NATURAL DIVISIONS OF THE GLOBE;

ACCOMPANIED WITH

Analytical, Synoptical, and Elementary Tables.

By M. MALTE-BRUN.

IMPROVED BY THE ADDITION OF THE MOST RECENT INFORMATION, DERIVED FROM VARIOUS SOURCES.

VOLUME VI.

CONTAINING THE DESCRIPTION OF EUROPE.

BOSTON:
WELLS AND LILLY—COURT-STREET.
AND
WHITE, GALLAHER AND WHITE, NEW-YORK.

1828.

910
M29
V.6

CONTENTS OF VOL. VI.

BOOK XCIV.

EUROPE.

Its Physical Geography. Seas, Lakes, Rivers, and Mountains.

	PAGE
Introduction	1
Limits of Europe	3
Superficial Extent—Dimensions—Centre	4
Atlantic Ocean—White Sea—North or German Sea	5
Jutland Channel—Katte Gat	6
The Baltic—British Channel—Bay of Biscay	7
The Mediterranean—Italian Sea—Adriatic Sea—Archipelago—Black Sea	8
Currents in the Mediterranean	9
Caspian Sea—Coasts of Europe	10
Lakes	11
Scandinavian lakes—Lakes to the South of the Baltic—Alpine lakes	12
Italian lakes—Irish lakes—The proportion between the Basin—The Six largest Rivers in Europe	13
European Mountains—The Dofrine Mountains	14
The Caledonian Mountains—Great Northern Plain—The Alps	15
The Appenines—Dinarian Alps	16
Jura, Vosges—The Cevennes—Pyrenees—The Alpugarras—Mount Hemus	17
Olympus, Pindus, &c.—Carpathian and Hercynian	18
European Plains—Upper and Lower Europe	19
Table of different Rivers in Europe	21-24
Height of the Principal Mountains in Europe	24-39
Height of Buildings	39

13293

BOOK XCV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Climate. Distribution of Animals and Plants.

PAGE
Prejudices concerning Climate . . . 40
False Notions of the learned—Causes of the European Climates—Modified by Asia—East Winds . . 41
Modified by Africa—South winds . . . 42
Oceanic influence—Conflict between the Maritime and Continental Winds 43
Insular Climates 44
South-west Winds—Succession of the Spring—European Climates 45
Elevation of the Sun—Snow Line . . . 46
Level of Central Europe 47
Level of the Sarmatian Plains—Isothermal Lines . 48
Curvative of the Isothermal Lines in Europe . . 49
Humidity of the Atmosphere . . . 50
Salubrity of the Air 51
Vegetation of the Oceanic Climate—Vegetation under the Asiatic Climate 52
Effects of the Caspian Climate—Vegetation of the Mediterranean Climate 53
Difference between the Vegetation of the West and East 54
Levels of Vegetation 55
Grain—The Vine—Hops 56
Wine and Beer—Oil and Butter . . . 57
Fruit Trees—Lint and Hemp 58
Trees and Shrubs 59
Changes produced by Culture—Animals . . 60
In the Central Countries of Europe—In the Alps, &c. in the South 61
Table of European Sections 62-68
Table of Mean Temperature according to the Centigrade Thermometer 69

BOOK XCVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Remarks on the Political Geography of Europe. Nations, Languages, Religion, Political Divisions, Governments, Population, &c.

PAGE

Origin of European States 70
European Languages 71
European People—Greeks—Albanians . . . 72
Turks—Nations indigenous to Europe, Slavonians and Finns 73
Wallachians—Bulgarians—Finns . . . 74
Teutonic Nations—Germans . . . 75
Scandinavian Nations—English—Ancient People of the west and the south 76
Basques—Native Irish, Highlanders—Belgians . 77
Latin Language—Connexion between these Languages and the number of Inhabitants 78
Different Tribes—Religion—Greek Church—Latin Church —Reformed Church 79
Mahometans, Idolaters—Governments—Despotic states—Republics—Principal Powers 81
Physical relations between States . . . 82
Constituent Parts of Empires 83
Population 84
Causes of these results 85
Maritime Countries 86
Increase of Population—Necessity of Emigration . 87
The limits that Population may attain in some Countries—Future Migrations of States . . . 88
Rank 89
Agriculturists—Nobility—Middling Classes—Authors 90
Working Classes—Agriculturists and Husbandmen—Value of an Individual 91

Remarks 92
Value of the Military service 93
Northern States more powerful . . . 94
Synoptical Tables of ancient and modern European states, their origin, languages 95, 116

BOOK XCVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Physical description of Turkey in Europe.

PAGE

Chains of Mountains 117
Hemus Proper 118
Rhodope—Dardanian Mountains—Pindus . . 119
Olympus—Parnassus 120
Insular chains—Mountains in the Island of Andros—Pontus Euxinus 121
Hypothesis concerning the Bosphorus . . . 122
Archipelago 123
Rivers and Streams 124
Vale of Tempe 125
Physical changes in Beotia 126
Earthquakes—Volcanic Islands . . . 128
Eruptions 129

Caverns 130
Cavern in Antiparos—Cave of Trophonius . . 131

Climate—Climate of the Mountains . . . 132
Greece 133
Etesian 135
Ernithian Winds 136
Range of Temperature 137
Forests on the North and the South of Hemus . . 138
Fruit Trees 139
Vineyards—Transition of Plants . . . 140

Animal Kingdom 141
Animals Extinct—Mineral Kingdom—Gold Mines . 142
Marble 143
Islands—Bitumen 144

BOOK XCVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Portion of European Turkey to the south of Mount Hemus and the east of Pindus. Islands.

PAGE

Ordinary division—Constantinople, different names . 145
Port—Circumference—Situation . . . 146
Fanar—Seraglio 147
Buildings 148
Commerce—Pera, Galata—Neighbouring Country . 149
Adrianople—North-west of Romania . . . 150
Passes—Zagora—Paulianistes . . . 151
Subterranean Town—Bay of Bourgas—Tekeri-Dag . 152
Southern Coasts—Macedonia . . . 153
Mountains 154
Rivers—Mines—Fruitfulness of the Soil . . 155
Cotton and Tobacco—Salonica—Towns in the South—Different Tribes 156
Mount Athos—Towns in the North-east . . 157
Towns in the North-west—Central Towns . . 158
Different Tribes 159
Thessaly—Trading Towns—Meteora—Gulf of Volo . 160
Greece Proper—Mount Parnassus . . . 161
Athens—The Peloponnesus, or Morea . . . 162
Character of the Modern Greeks . . . 163
Greek Church 164
Maniotes 165
Cacovouniotes—Candia, or Crete—Mountains . . 166
Climate—Productions—Towns . . . 167
Spachiotes—The Cyclades 168
Island in the Gulf of Athens—Hydra . . 169
Continuation of the Cyclades—Negroponte, or Egripo—Sporades 170
Seven Ionian Islands—Corfu . . . 171
Paxo—Santa Maura—Cephalonia—Ithaca . . 172
Zante—Cerigo—Ionian Republic . . . 173

BOOK XCIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Turkey. Western Provinces. Albanians and Proto-Slavonians.

PAGE
Albano-Dalmatian Mountains—Mountains of Albania . 176
Central Ridge of Dalmatia 177
Plain of Kosovo 178
Climate, vegetation—Lower Albania or Epirus . 179
Animals—Valley of Janina 180
Wallachians on Mount Pindus . . . 181
Suliotes—Paramithiotes—Parga . . . 182
Philates—Basin of the Aous 183
Nymphaeum—Central Albania—Mirdites . . 184
Lake of Ochrida 185
Upper Albania, Scodra—The Guegues or Guikhes . 186
Character of the Albanians—Religion . . 188
Origin of the Albanians, their Language . . 189
Albanian Language 190
Sanscrit Geographical Terms 191
Connexion between the Albanian and Aeolian . 192
Names of Macedonian Months—Connexion with the Pelasgic 193
Names of the Pelasghi 194
Connexion with the Hellenic 195
Connexion with the Latin 196
Celticisms and Germanisms 197
Albanians, Skipitars, &c. 198
Albanian Grammar 200
Albanian Alphabet 203
Cettas and Pharas—Superstitions . . . 203
Novel method of Fishing—Montenegro . . . 204
Notions 205
Dalmatia or Herzgovina—Towns and Fortresses—Rivers without embouchures 206
Bosnia and Turkish Croatia 207
Vegetable Productions—Corn 208
Forests—Animals—Mines and Minerals . . 209
Salt 210
Climate—Springs and Rivers . . . 211

PAGE
Principal Towns—Residence of the Pacha . . 212
Language, Manners—Condition of the Women . 214
Religion—Other Districts 215
Rascia—Servia—Mountains and Rivers . . 216
Productions—Inhabitants 217
Rights—Towns of Lower Servia . . . 218
Monuments—Towns in the Interior . . . 219
Tomb of Amurath I.—Proto-Slavonians . . 220
Proto-Slavonian Tribe in Thrace . . . 221
Proto-Slavonians in Pannonia . . . 222
Religious Customs—Arrival of the Slavonians—Invasions of the Serbi 223
Croatian Invasions—Conclusion . . . 224

BOOK C.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Turkey. North-east Provinces. Wallachians. Zigeunes or Gypsies.

The Bulgarians, their Origin and Migrations . . 226
Productions—Towns and Remarkable Places . 227
Dobrudscha 228
Wallachia, Origin of the Wallachians . . 229
Names of the Wallachians 231
Numbers 232
Hospodars 233
Divan—Condition of the Peasantry . . . 234
Classes—Privileges—Clergy 235
Natural Advantages—Productions . . . 236
Revenue, Taxes, and Exports 238
Divisions—Towns 239
Towns in Little Wallachia 240
Passes—Climate 241
Productions 242
Animals—Cattle 243
Towns and Burghs 244

PAGE
Jassy, the Capital 245
Government—Revenue 246
Character and Manners—Oungaraines . . 247
Zigeunes, Gypsies, or Bohemians . . . 248
Trades, Arts, &c. 249
Number—Different Names of the Gypsies . . 250
Traditions—Language 251
Indo-European Origin—Sigynes . . . 254
Sinties or Sindi 255
Hindoo Nations of Europe—Conclusion . . 256
Increase and decline of the Turkish power . 257-267

TABLE—*The divisions of European Turkey according to Hadgi-Khalfa and Hisar Fenn, compared with those of Ricaut and Marsigli* 268-274
Table of the Divisions of the Morea according to M. Pouqueville 274, 275
Table of the Population in European Turkey according to M. Hassel (1823) 275-277

BOOK CI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Hungary and its Appendages; Physical Geography.

INTRODUCTION 278
MOUNTAINS—Carpathian Proper—Fatra . . 279
The Fatra—Alps of Liptau 280
Hegy-Allya—Lowering of the Carpathian Mountains 281
Opinion of M. Beudant—Opinion of M. Kitaibel . . 282
Transylvanian Mountains 283
Mountains of the Bannat—Intermediate Mountains—Western Mountains 284
PLAINS—Lakes 285
Lake of Neusiedel 286
MARSHES—Their extent . . . 287
RIVERS—The Danube 288
The Theiss 289

PAGE
The Save 290
The Drave—Climate of the Mountains . . 291
Climate of the Hills—Climate of the Plains . . 292
Land and Rocks 293
Rock Salt 294
Ancient Lake or Mediterranean—Sandstone . . 295
Basalts—Metals 296
Iron Mines—Copper Mines 297
Different Metals, &c.—Marbles and Precious Stones . 298
Coal—Vegetable Kingdom—Grain—Wines, Tokay . 299
Different Plants—Forests 301
Cattle—Sheep—Horses 303
Hogs—Game—Fish 304

BOOK CII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Hungary and the adjacent Provinces, Towns and Divisions, &c.

Central Towns 305
Plain of Rokasch 306
Towns in the North-west—Royal Hill—Schutt . 307
Towns of the Mines—Caverns 308
Different Curiosities—The Sixteen Towns in the Country of Zips 309
Northern Towns 310
Caverns in Torna 311
Vineyards—Towns in the North-east . . . 312
Different Nations in Northern Hungary—Slovacs . 313
Copaniczares—Character—Costume—Dialect of the Slovacs—Numbers 314
Rousniacs—Manners and Customs—Marriages, &c. . 315
Towns on the Plain—Debrec 316
Towns in the Bannat of Temeswar—Caverns, Veterani—Hungarian Wallachians 317
Funerals 318

PAGE
Superstitions—Remarks 319
Wallachian Fraternity—Towns between the Danube and the Theiss 320
District of the Tchaikistes—Great and Little Cumania 321
Cumans—Origin 322
Trans-Danubian Circle—Towns, &c. . . 324
Towns continued—German Inhabitants . . . 325
Vandals—Croatia and Slavonia—Physical Divisions . 326
Produce—Slavonia—Produce—Agriculture . . 328
Population 329
Character, &c. 330
Towns 331
Caroline Way 332
Kingdom of Dalmatia—Dalmatia Proper . . 334
Islands 335
District of Poglitza—Ragusa . . . 337
Towns—Remarkable Places 338
Towns 339
Bocchese—Transylvania 340
Divisions—Towns 341
Kronstadt—Foundation of the Saxon colony . . 342
Constitution—Morals—Name . . . 343
Country of the Szeklers—Country of the Hungarians . 344
Name of the Carpathian Mountains . . . 345

BOOK CIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Hungary concluded. Researches on the origin of the Hungarians. Remarks on the Provinces annexed to Hungary.

HUNGARIANS 346
Character—Nobles—National Character . . 347
Peasants 348
Hungarian or Magian Language . . . 349
Resemblance between the Hungarian and Armenian . 350
Government, Political Institutions . . . 351

PAGE
Hungarian Diet 352
Provincial Administration--Condition of the Peasants 353
Urbarium 354
Religious Liberty 355
Different Sects in Transylvania--Civil and Political Institutions—Industry—Manufactures . . . 356
Commerce 357
Jealousy of Austria 358
Army—Military Limits—Origin of the Hungarians . 359
Historical Summary—Relation with the Finns . . 360
Conclusion 362
Magiar Traditions 363
Remarks on the Hungarian Traditions—Dates . 364
Rise of the Hungarian Monarchy . . . 365
Its Fall—Civil Wars 366
Synoptical Table of the Political and Military divisions of Hungary, &c. 368-373
Population 274-276

BOOK CIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. First Section. Southern Russia.

Rivers, the Dneister 377
Russian Moldavia—Towns 378
Bessarabia—Physical Geography—Towns . . 379
Great Roman Wall—Different Nations that have inhabited the Country 380
System of M. de Sestrenzevitch 382
The Dneiper—Islands in the Dneiper . . 383
Towns on the River 384
Physical Geography 385
Country between the Dneiper and the Sea of Azof—Towns --New Russian Colony 386
Duchoborzes—Kurgans--The Crimea of Taurida . 387
Putrid Sea—Mountains 388

PAGE
Southern Valleys 389
Agriculture—Obstacles by which Cultivation is Retarded 390
Towns and Remarkable Places . . . 391
The Criow-Metopon 393
Character, Manners 394
Husbandmen—History of the Cossacks . . . 395
Origin of the Name—Cossacks of Little Russia . 396
Cossacks of Russia Ukraine 397
Zaparogues—Government 398
Country of the Cossacks on the Black Sea—Clay Volcanoes 400
Cossacks of the Don 401
Country of the Donian Cossacks—Manners, Habitations . 402
Political Liberty—Towns 403
The Don 404
Sea of Azof—Russian Kalmucks—Isthmus of the Caspian 405
The Wolga—Breadth 406
Polumna or Lungs of the Wolga 407
Name of the Wolga 408
Physical description of Astracan 409
Ridge of Rynpeski—Fertile Districts—Excess of Heat and Cold 410
Towns 411
Country of the Uralian Cossacks—Fisheries on the Ural 412
Towns, Manners, &c.—Historical Remarks—Their Expeditions in Asia 413

BOOK CV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Eastern Russia. Finno-Hunns or Uralians.

Finno-Hunnic Race 415
Connexion between the Scythians and Finns . . 416
Connexion between the Finns and Hunns . . 418
Progressive Discoveries 419
Temple of Joumala 420
Finno-Uralians—Tribes of Iougoria . . . 421

PAGE
Western Finns 422
Laplanders—Wolgaic Finns 423
Description of the Country—Government of Orenburg 424
Iron and Copper Works—Obstchei Sirt—Granite Islands 425
Sulphur Lake—River of Milk—Town of Orenburg . 426
Commerce with Asia—Eagles—Other Towns . . 427
Baschkirs—Mechtscheriaikes . . . 428
Tephaires—Government of Saratow—German Colonies—Towns 429
Towns—Zarew-Kurgan—Government of Kasan . 430
Town of Kasan 431
Manners of the People—Tchouvasches—Mythology . 432
Tcheremisses—Mythology 433
Manners and Customs—Mordvines . . . 434
The Tartars of Kasan 435
Government of Wiatka—Ridge—Towns . . 436
Wotiaikes—Mode of Life 437
Names of Divinities—Government of Permia or Perm 438
Western Uralian Mountains—Ores—Climate—Vegetation 439
Towns—Permians and Siriaines . . . 440
Ancient Monarchy of the Tchoudes—Alphabet . . 441
Superstition 442

BOOK CVI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. Third Section. Northern Russia. Countries on the White Sea.

Aspect of the Country 443
Country on the East of the White Sea—Rivers . 444
Dwina—Climate 445
Soil and Productions—Horses and Oxen—Shrubs . 446
Archangel 447
Fisheries—Wolugda and Oustioug-Weliki . . 448
Manners of the Inhabitants—Other Towns . . 449
Udoria, &c.—Iotun-Heim 450

PAGE
Samoyedes, their Name—Tribes of the Samoyedes . 451
Different Animals—Produce of the Country—Physical Character 452
Dwellings—Superstition 453
Government of Olonetz—Olonetz Hills—Gold-Towns 454
Island of Solowetskoy—Russian Lapland . . 455
Mountains 456
Metal—Rivers and Lakes 457
Appearance of the Country 458
Climate—Maritime Region 459
Climate of the Central Ridge—Vegetation . . 460
Flora Laponica—Mosses—Rein deer's Lichen . . 461
Bear's Moss—Pastures 462
Animals, the Rein deer—Electricity of the Rein deer . 463
Other Animals 464
Birds—Name 465
Appearance—Character 466
Life of the Rein deer Shepherds—Tents . . 467
Manner of Travelling, Sledges—Burning of the Forests 468
Dress—Industry 469
Feasts, Songs—Diseases, Medicine . . . 470
Languages 471
Superstition of the Laplanders . . . 472
Names of the Gods—Two Families of Gods . . 473
Worship—Idols 474
Holy Places—Magic 475
Gulf of Magicians 475

BOOK CVII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. Fourth Section. Provinces Round the Baltic Sea.

General Survey 478
Finland—Physical Description—Mountains—Central Ridge 479
Giant's Caldrons—Ores—Rivers and Lakes . . 480

PAGE
Inclosure of Rocks—Different Climates—Scenery . 481
Soil—Animals—Forests—Fruit trees . . . 482
Method of tilling the Ground . . . 483
Provinces and Towns—Carelia 485
Manner of Fighting—Kuopio . . . 486
Basins of the Lakes—Heinola 487
Tavastland—Remarkable Places . . . 488
Forts of Sveaborg 489
Finland Proper—Towns 490
Islands, Aland 491
Ostrobothnia—Wasa 492
Towns—Castle of Hysis—Inhabitants . . . 493
Finlanders 494
Ymes 495
Kyriales—Mythology 496
Magic—Finnic Orpheus 497
Finnic Language—Dialects—Runic Characters—Character 498
Government—Schools 498
Poetry and Music—Habitations—Vapour Baths . . 500

BOOK CVIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. Fourth Section. Description of the Provinces on the Baltic, continued and concluded.

Gulf of Finland 502
Inundations of the Neva—Lake Ladoga—Lake Onega—Ingria 504
Climate, Seasons 504
Petersburg 505
Different quarters 506
Population—Architecture 507
Statue of Peter the Great 508
Trade of Petersburg—Neighbourhood of Petersburg—Palaces 509
Cronstadt—Narva—German Provinces . . 510
Inhabitants—Successive Inhabitants . . . 511
Bremish Expeditions—Scandinavians . . 512

PAGE
Crusades on the Baltic—Order of Knighthood . . 513
Swedish Wars—Russian Conquests . . . 514
Physical Geography—Hills 515
Climate—Plants 516
Animals—Lakes—Rivers—Duna 517
Topographical details—Towns . . . 518
Livonia 519
Town of Riga—Trade 520
Fortifications—University of Dorpat—Courland . . 521
Climate—Productions—Towns . . . 522
Sinking of the Land—Headland of Domesnes—Esthonian Archipelago—Island of Oesel 523
Dago—Inhabitants of the Provinces—Nobility . 524
Burgesses—Peasantry 525
Esthonians—Language 526
Religion 527
Sacred Fountains and Rivers—Catholic Traditions . 528
Holy Places—Monuments 529
Kangers 530
Calendars 531
Character of the Esthonians, Lettons or Lettonians . 532
Lettonian Superstitions 533

BOOK CIX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. Fifth Section. Central Provinces or Great Russia.

Preliminary Remarks 535
Central Ridge—Height of Volchouski—Calcareous hills 536
Chalk banks—Hills of Waldai—Ridge on the northeast—Wolgaic chain 537
Climate, four zones 538
Plants and Trees—Forests 539
Agriculture—Method of drying Wheat . . . 540
Fruit Trees—Asiatic Apples 541

PAGE
Horticulture—Gardeners of Rostow—Animal Kingdom 542
Horses—Government of Novgorod—History of the Town of Novgorod 543
Government of Pleskow and Witepsk . . . 544
Inhabitants 545
White Russians—Classes 546
Government of Smolensko—Towns . . 547
Government of Twer—Towns 548
Government of Moscow—Produce—Industry—Commerce—Towns—Moscow 549
Extent, appearance—Number of houses . . 550
Kremel or Kremlin—Bells 551
Kitaigorod—Beloigorod—Semlanoigorod . . 552
Other Towns 553
Monasteries—Government of Wladimir—Rivers . 554
Industry and Agriculture 555
Lake Poganovo—Government of Jaroslaw—Towns—Industry—Government of Kostroma . . . 556
Government of Nischnei Novgorod . . . 557
Town of Nischgorod 558
Government of Penza—Variety of the Horse . 559
Government of Tambof—Produce—Population—Towns—Steppes 560
Government of Riæsan—Lakes in the District of Iegoriewesk—Gardening 561
Tartars in Kasimow—Town of Riæsan—Government of Toula 562
Wiætitches—The Town of Tula . . . 563
Nobles—Government of Kaluga 564
Government of Orel 565
Government of Kursk 566
Towns—Itinerant Merchants . . . 567
Government of Woronesch—Climate and Productions—Town of Woronesch 568
The Dwini-Gori—Fossil Bones . . . 569

BOOK CX.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Sixth Section. Provinces of Little Russia. Manners and Customs of the Russians.

PAGE

Historical remarks 570
Physical Description—Plains and Ridge . . 571
Hills—Rivers 572
Climate and Productions—Inhabitants . . 573
Topographical Description 574
Government of Charkof—Grapes in the Gardens of Isium 575
Government of Pultava—Towns—Monuments . 576
Government of Tchernigof—Trade of Nejin—Government 577
Government of Podolia—Animals . . . 578
Government of Volhynia—Towns . . . 579
Territory of the Order of Malta—Difference between the Great and Little Russians . . . 580
Freedom and Slavery—Force and Patience of the Russians 581
Appearance—Women 582
Marriage Ceremonies—Funerals . . . 583
Religious Festivals—Heathen Ceremonies—Dress . 584
Dress of the Women—Use of Rouge—Dwellings . 585
Furniture—Food—Diseases 586
Remedies—Baths—Vapour Baths, known to the Ancients 587
Amusements—Russian Mountains—Domestic Industry . 588
House Market—Different Classes of Peasants . 589
Merchants and Tradesmen—Dress . . . 590
Clergy—Marriage of the Priests . . . 591
Nobles 592
Bad Government 593
Progress of Knowledge—Court Intrigues . . 594
Actual Improvement—Language and Dialects . 595
Vital Fire 596
Divinities of the Spring—Testimony of Procopius—Supposed Dualism 597
Temples and Holy Places 598

BOOK CXI.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

European Russia. Seventh Section. Lithuanian Provinces.

PAGE
Origin of the Lithuanians—Chronicles . . . 599
Russian Chronicles—Formation of the Grand Dutchy 600
Jagellon 601
Act of 1559—Result 602
Russian Governments—Samogitia—Physical Description 603
Towns and Houses—Samogitians . . . 604
Manners—Ancient Worship 605
Honours rendered to the Dead . . . 606
Lithuania—Physical Details—Climate—Animals—Productions 607
The Niemen—Lithuanians 608
Lithuanian Language 609
Towns 611
Monastery—Tartars—Lithuanian Russia . . 612
Physical Description 613
Agriculture 614
Condition of the People—Towns in White Russia—Moldavian Colony 615
Towns in Black Russia—Polesia—Oginski Canal . 616
Towns in Polesia—Province of Bialystock . . 617

BOOK CXII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Russia concluded. Origin, Rise, and Resources of the Russian Empire.

Origin of the Slavo-Russians—Waregueans . . 619
Settlement of the Waregueans—Extension of the Russian Name 620
Nucleus of the Russian Nation—Successive Additions . 621

PAGE
Inland Resources 622
Muscovites of the Sixteenth Century—Efforts of Peter the First 623
Revolutions under his Successors . . . 624
Insurrection of the Nobles 625
Military Glory—Political Intrigues—Accessions made by Catherine 626
Alexander—Accessions made by Alexander—Natural Limits of Russia 628
Annual Increase in the Population—Progress of Industry—Rearing of Cattle 629
Agriculture, Produce, &c. 630
Mines—Fisheries—Chase, &c. 631
Manufactures—Spirits 632
Revenue 634
Expenditure—Land Forces—Military Colonies—Navy—Form of Government—Council of the Empire—Senate 635, 636
Holy Synod 637
M. Hassel's Table of the Population in Russia, Poland, and the Vassal States, 1st January 1823 . 638-440
Critical Observations on the Preceding Table . . 641-643
TABLE *of the Population of the different Nations in the Russian Empire* 643-645
TABLE *of the Principal Towns in the Russian Empire* 646, 647

BOOK CXIII.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of Poland. Republic of Cracow.

Division of Poland 648
Name—Sarmatian Plain 649
Cavities—Division of the Waters . . . 650
Rivers and Streams 651
Climate of Upper Poland—Climate of the Plains . 652
Seasons of Vegetation—Extreme variations . . 653
Meteors—Mists 654

PAGE
Water—Minerals—Mines of Upper Poland . . 655
Quarries—Agriculture—Forests 657
Bees—Fish—Birds 658
Quadrupeds—On the Existence of the Urus . . 659
Inaccuracy of Names 660
Poles—Diseases—Small Pox 661
Syphilis—Plica—Unknown Cause . . . 662
Effects of Disease—Origin of Plica . . . 663
Departments—Warsaw 664
Quarters of the Town—Massacre at Praga . . 665
Library of Zaluski—Public Buildings—Neighbourhood of Warsaw 666
Other Towns in Masovia—Waiwodat of Kalisch . 667
Waiwodats of Cracow and Sendomir—Ridge of Little Poland 668
Waiwodat of Lublin—Remarkable Castles . . 669
Waiwodat of Podlachia—Waiwodat of Płock—Towns, &c. 670
Waiwodat of Augustowo—Surface and Population . 671
Constitution—Republic of Cracow—Aspect of the Country—Town-Monuments 672
Commerce—University—Tomb of Queen Venda . 673
Baths of Krzeszowice 674

BOOK CXIV.

EUROPE CONTINUED.

Kingdom of Gallicia, or Austrian Poland. Polish Language and Antiquities.

Names of Galitzia and Lodomiria . . . 675
Historical dates . - . . . 676
Hungarian Influence—Physical Description . . 677
Hills—Climate 678
Productions—Grain—Cattle, &c. . . . 679
Salt Lands 680
Mines of Bochnia and Wieliezca—Details . . 681
Different Kinds of Salt—Town of Lemberg . . 682

PAGE
Manner of Life—Polish part of Gallicia—Towns . 684
Gorales 685
Manner of Life—Food—Longevity . . . 686
Costume—Rousniak portion of Gallicia . . 687
Russini or Rousniaks 688
Churches—Houcoules—State of the Country—German Colonies 689
Peasantry—Nobles 690
Progress of Industry—Exports—Military Force—Revenue 691
Bukowine—Climate, produce—Towns—Inhabitants—Historical Details 692
Polish Language 693
Origin of the Poles—Szlachics 694
National Divinities 695
Discussion on the Sarmatians 696
Origin of the Name—Sarmatian Migrations . . 697
Extinction of the Sarmatians—Sarmatians of the Fourth Century 698
Statistical Table of Gallicia . . . 699, 700

most part profess the Greco-Russian religion, and many are of Servian origin. The new city of *Nikolaief* is situated at the confluence of the Ingul and the Bog; it is the seat of an admiralty, it is peopled by 9000 inhabitants, and, although adorned with fine edifices, it is ill provided with wood and materials for building. The neighbourhood of Ilinskaia on the liman of the Bog, is covered with the ruins of Olbai, an ancient Milesian colony.

Physical geography.

The country between the Dniester and the Dnieper may be divided into two distinct regions. The hills in the northern are partly covered with lofty forests of oaks, limes and poplars. The southern plains, though well adapted for corn, and not encumbered with trees, are almost wholly neglected; numerous flocks and herds feed on them, but the pastures are sometimes scorched by arid and burning winds. The soil, when it is first broken by the plough, appears to be impregnated with nitre, a substance deleterious to vegetation, yet as soon as it is removed or diminished, Albanian wheat, millet and the arbute melon may be cultivated with great success. The farinacious fruit of the *cratægus aria* is made into bread, and used by the poor. The Greek poplar grows on the banks of rivers, and the gardens in the neighbourhood of the towns yield almost every sort of fruit; thus there are seven kinds of grapes, but the wine is weak and acid.

The animals indigenous to the country are the *myoxus*, the *mus-citillus*, the *arctomys* or Russian marmot, the *mustela sarmatica* and the *saiga*. The heaths, the brushwood and the steppes abound in partridges, quails and woodcocks; and whenever the grasshoppers are not devoured by sea swallows, the whole or the greater part of the harvest is consumed by these destructive insects. The cold of winter is intense, and the streams are dried by the summer's heat.*

* Meyer, Opisanie Otchakowcki Semlii, 1794. Bœber's Account of Iekaterinoslav. See the Transactions of the Economical Society of St. Petersburg. Pallas's Travels.

BOOK CIV.

Country between the Dnieper and the sea of Azof.

The above remarks are strictly applicable to the country between the Dnieper and the sea of Azof. The well-wooded hills form a narrow frontier, the steppes are more extensive, the soil is comparatively barren, and the husbandmen live at greater distances from one another. Brackish lakes and marshes, heaths and sandy downs are thickly scattered through the plains.*

Towns.

All the towns, with the exception of *Bachmuth*, which is famous for its horses, are situated on the sea of Azof. *Taganrok*, the most important of any, is built on a promontory, its harbour may contain from thirteen to fourteen hundred small vessels; the furs of eastern Russia are sent from it into different countries, and the other exports are the same as those of Odessa. Peter the Great wished to make it one of his capitals, and the place is memorable from the death of Alexander the First, who visited it in his journey through the provinces, and was there seized with the fever of the Crimea.

Nachitchevan, a town of 13,000 or 14,000 souls, is peopled by an Arminian colony. It is situated in a district attached to the government of Iekaterinoslav, and surrounded by the territory of the Cossacks. The trade consists chiefly in silk and cotton, the neighbouring country is thickly planted with mulberry trees, and the houses are built in the eastern style. *Azof* was once included among the cities of Asia, its fortifications have fallen into decay, but its gardens and fruit trees are now more numerous than ever.

New Russian colony.

All that extent of land together with Taurida, is sometimes called *New Russia;* it may be considered an acquisition wrested from nature by the efforts and industry of the Tartars. The greater part of the inhabitants are at present composed of Russian husbandmen; but the imperial government invited colonists from every nation, and the great population of Little Russia is nowhere more abundant than on the banks of the Dnieper. Servians,

* Iunker's Account of the Country between the Dnieper and the Don. Muller's Historical Memoirs of the Russian empire, volume IX.

Wallachians and Albanians have inhabited, since 1754, the district between the Dnieper and the Ingul, which has been long known by the name of *New Servia.* The colonists are now confounded with the Russians. Some Poles sought refuge in the neighbourhood of Odessa, after the annihilation of their country, and the Greeks have increased on the banks of the Berda. Few settlers have migrated to the Steppes of Nogay. Ten villages to the south-east of these districts are peopled by *Duchoborzes* or Russian quakers, and 30,000 Nogay Tartars burnt their travelling wagons near these European settlements, and fixed their abode in seventy-three villages.*

Duchoborzes.

Kurgans.

The colonists are in many places ill provided with timber for building, they live under the ground, and the hillocks, which are so common in the country, and which served in ancient times for graves or monuments of the dead, are now converted into houses, the vaults are changed into roofs, and beneath them are subterranean excavations. *Kurgan* is the Tartar name for these *tumuli,* they are scattered throughout New Russia, they were raised at different times by the different people who ruled over that region. The Kurgans are not all of the same kind; some are not unlike the rude works of the early Hungarians, others are formed of large and thin stones, like the Scandinavian tombs. It is to be regretted that the different articles contained in them have been only of late years examined with care. Many inscriptions, long concealed in ruins, prove the existence of Greek colonies from the banks of the Danube to the Borysthenes. Other and more frequent traces of the same people still remain on the coasts of Taurida.

The Crimea or Taurida.

A gulf on the Black Sea, and another on the sea of Azof, are divided by a narrow isthmus, and limit on the north the peninsula of Taurida, or the Crimea. The eastern part is washed by the sea of Azof, and separated from Asia by the strait of Yenikali, or the Cimmerian Bosphorus, and the

* Nouvelles Annales des Voyages, t. I. p. 249.

BOOK CIV.

southern and western coasts border on the Black Sea. The part to the north of the river Salghir is an immense plain, of which the western extremity is barren and covered with sand, and the northern or the country near the isthmus of Perecop abounds in salt and salt marshes, but the part on the south is arable and fertile. When the wind is easterly, the *Siwash* or eastern gulf, and the Putrid Sea or *Gniloï More* receive by a narrow opening the waters of the sea of Azof, but at other times the ooze, the filth and mud that cover the beds of these marshes may be seen to the distance of ten versts.* The noxious exhalations that rise from them, render the country unhealthy beyond Perecop. Salt, sheep, and Albanian wheat are the riches of the plains. But the air is mixed with unwholesome vapours, and the husbandmen that settle in the country, are subject on their arrival to dangerous diseases. The southern region is very different, a mountainous range of no great extent rises in front of the Black Sea. The maritime or highest part is formed by strata of calcareous rocks and madrepores, the inland chain is also composed of limestone mixed with shells, and their horizontal beds descend beneath the plains. The highest summit is situated in the neighbourhood of Symferopol and Baktchisarai; it has been distinguished by the Russian name of *Tchetyr-Dag*, because its shape is not unlike a tent. The traveller takes three hours to ascend it, but he is rewarded for his toil by the view from the top; he can see the whole of that fine peninsula, which was at one time covered with flourishing cities under the dominion of the Tartars. Perecop is distinctly seen on the north, the Black Sea extends to the south and the west, and the distant prospect is bounded on the east by the sea of Azof.† The caverns in these rocks

Putrid Sea.

Mountains.

* The verst, a Russian measure of length, is equal to 2520 English feet, consequently three versts are equal to two English miles.

† The height of the summit is 1200 feet according to Pallas, and 6600 according to Sumarakof.

are filled with snow, from them the Salghir takes its rise, and a thousand rivulets wind in every direction. The streams form a great number of cascades before they reach the base of the mountain, the water is intensely cold, and so transparent that a small stone or a piece of silver may be easily observed at the depth of seventy fathoms. The caverns are situated in many parts of the calcareous hills, those of *Bobatag* served as an asylum for the ancient inhabitants.* The mildest and most fruitful region in all the Russian empire is that continuation of valleys arranged in natural amphitheatres at the southern base of Taurida, along the coasts of the Black Sea. The climate is little different from that of Anatolia and Asia Minor; winter is hardly felt, the primrose and the crocus appear above the ground in the month of January, and the oak retains its green foliage throughout the year. "No part of Taurida, perhaps of the whole empire, affords the botanist a greater variety of plants, or the husbandman richer harvests. The ever-verdant laurel grows beside the olive, the pomegranate, the fig or the date tree, which might have been brought to the country in ancient times by Greek colonists. The mammiferous ash, the mastich, the sumach, the bladder-nut, the sage-leaved cistus, the emerus and the arbute of Asia Minor flourish in the open air. The walnut and almost every kind of fruit tree thrive in the woods or rather the natural gardens in the valleys. The caper bush is scattered along the coast, the wild vine reaches to the tops of the highest trees, descends again to the ground, and forms with the viburnum festoons and garlands. High hills, masses of rocks, streams and cataracts, verdant fields and woods, and the sea that bounds the horizon, render the landscape equal to any imagined or described by poets. The simple life of the good Tartars, their cottages cut in the solid rock, and concealed by the thick foliage of surrounding gardens, the flute of the shepherd, his flocks scat-

Southern valleys.

* Pallas, Tableau Physique de la Tauride.

BOOK CIV.

tered on solitary hills, remind the stranger of the golden age. The traveller leaves the people with regret, and envies the destiny of mortals ignorant of war, the frauds of trade, and luxury accompanied with all its vices."

These are the words of the learned Pallas, who left the court of Petersburg to spend the remainder of his days in the Crimea.

Agriculture.

The valuable plants of southern Europe and Asia Minor, might be cultivated in Taurida, and thus contribute to the wealth of Russia. "The most delicate fruits," continues M. Pallas, "arrive at maturity, many exist already in the province, olives and fig trees need not be exported from other regions, there is no scarcity of sesamum, a plant rich in oil, and the orange, the lemon and the citron, if a little labour be bestowed on them, resist the cold of winter. The grape might be much improved, if a judicious selection of the best vines were made in other countries, and if they were cultivated on different soils, the effect of which on the quality of the fruit had been previously ascertained. It might be necessary too to pay greater attention to the vintage, to the making of the new wine, and the preserving of the old. Druggists might obtain from the same country, many valuable simples and plants useful in dying, such as those generally exported from the islands in the Archipelago, Greece, Asia-Minor and Persia. Some of these plants are already found in a wild state, as the mammiferous ash and the sun-flower, that yields a rich blue dye. The same country is well adapted for the growth of different-coloured and hard timber, or for the wood employed in marquetry, for the cypress, the cork and the oaks from which gall-nuts and kermes are obtained, and the acorns used in dressing Morocco leather."

Obstacles by which cultivation is retarded.

The advantages which M. Pallas enumerated to his sovereign, are not likely to be soon realized. It is not denied that the germs of a future vegetation exist in the royal gardens at Nikita and other places, but the judicious labours of M. Steven are feebly seconded by the industry

of the inhabitants. The Tartar gardeners confine themselves to the cultivation of melons, arbutes, and ordinary vegetables. Apple, pear and cherry trees grow on the mountains; the peach, the fig, and the pomegranate thrive on the southern coast, but the olive is neglected, and the plantation of mulberry trees in the neighbourhood of Staroi-Krim is the only one in the country. The fourteen different kinds of grapes in Taurida are mostly consumed on the tables of the rich, and the quantity of wine produced is comparatively insignificant. The vineyards of Sudak form an exception; more than 30,000 eimers of wine are every year obtained from them. The Russian nobles for some time past have purchased land on that coast; its cultivation is thus improved, and the new proprietors expect ere long to raise *Burgundy* and *Champaigne* on their own estates, and to eat oranges from their own groves. But the nature of the climate, the vernal frosts, and the excessive heat of summer, if not insuperable obstacles, can only be surmounted by a civilized and industrious population.

Towns and remarkable places.

Perecop, a fortified place, consisting only of three houses, is not calculated to give the stranger a favourable opinion of the Crimean towns. The suburbs is three versts or two English miles distant; although peopled by a thousand individuals, who carry on a trade in salt, it is very ill built. The places to which the name of towns is least inapplicable, are situated on the district watered by the Salghir. That part of the country on which *Akmetchet* or the capital stands, is not fruitful, it is ill provided with water, and the inhabitants are exposed to endemical fevers. The town has been called *Sympheropol* by the Russians, since they became masters of the peninsula, but it is only known in the country by the name which it received from the Tartars. The population is not less than 20,000 souls, the inhabitants are indolent, and the place is without commerce.* The distance from Akmetchet to *Baktchi-Sarai,*

* Wsevoloiski's Dictionary, article Sympheropol.

is not more than 30 versts, or twenty English miles. It was once the residence of the Khan, and the Tartar capital of the Crimea. It is built on the craggy side of a large natural moat between two mountains, and surrounded with fountains, streams, terraces, hanging vineyards and groves of black poplars near rocks and precipices. The vast palace of the Khans still remains, but many other edifices have been destroyed by the victorious Russians.* The number of inhabitants is now reduced to seven or eight thousand; their principal trade consists in cutlery and morocco leather. *Tchufut-Kali*,† an ancient fortress erected by the Genoese on a lofty precipice, is not more than five versts from the last town. It is now a place of refuge for 1200 Jews, of the sect Karai. The character of the Karaites is very different from that of their brethren in other countries; they live without reproach, their honesty is proverbial in the Crimea, and the word of a Karaite is said to be as good as another man's bond. They still adhere to the law of Moses: they have rejected the Talmud, every Rabbinical doctrine, and all interpolations of scriptural texts.‡ *Koslow*, which was for a short time distinguished by the name of Eupatoria, is situated on the western coast; its port is the most commercial of any in the peninsula, its population amounts to 12,000 inhabitants, many of whom are brewers of *bouza*, the Mussulman ale, that is drank on the banks of the Sennaar. *Akhtiar* or *Sevastopol*, a large naval arsenal, and a temporary station of the Russian fleet, from which it can sail in twenty-four hours to the Bosphorus, is built on the southern extremity of the same coast. We observe after having doubled the capes of the Chersonesus and St. George, the narrow entrance of the port *Balaklava*, where two thousand Greeks gain a subsistence by trade and the

* Clarke's Travels, vol. I. p. 464.

† Tchufut was originally a name of reproach bestowed on the Jews. Kalé signifies a fort.

‡ Clarke, vol. I. p. 482.

The Criou-Metopon.

produce of their mackarel fisheries. All the rocky and steep coast from Cape *Aia* to Cape *Aitodoro*, is in our opinion, the *front of the ram*, or the *Criou-Metopon* of the ancients. Travellers remark at the base of the mountains or the Byzantine *Klimata*, the romantic towns of *Nikita*, *Aloutchti*, *Soudak* and its small harbour, and *Ioursof* with a castle belonging to the governors of Taurida. Caffa or the ancient Theodosia is situated at the extremity of the mountains on the bay of Caffa. It covers the southern side of the gulf, and rises like a vast theatre of mosques and minarets near all the hills which enclose that part of the bay. It merited and obtained in past times the appellation of the Lesser Constantinople, it contained 36,000 houses within its walls, and not fewer than 8000 in the suburbs. It must be confessed, however, that the ruins do not indicate a space proportionate to so great a number. Mahomet II. having made himself master of the Bosphorus, took the town in 1475. It continued to flourish under the Tartars, but its inhabitants, like those throughout the Crimea, abandoned their possessions at the approach of the Russians, and the Genoese and Tartar monuments were destroyed by the barbarous troops of the czar.* The present population is less than 4000. *Kertsh*, once the residence of Mithridates, and the capital of the Bosphorian kings, and *Yenicale*, a small fortress that commands the strait, are situated on the eastern peninsula; near the former is the tomb of Mithridates, and a magnificent sarcophagus at Yenicale is now changed into a reservoir. The Altyn Obo, or highest hill in that part of the Crimea, is about four versts distant from Kertsh; it contains, according to tradition, a treasure guarded by a virgin, who spends her nights in lamentations. It was from the ancient citadel of the Bosphorians on the precipice above the sea, that Mithridates threw his son Xiphanes into the waves; at

* Clarke's Travels, chapters 18 and 19.

BOOK CIV.

least there is no other spot connected with the site of Panticapœum,* which from its eminence corresponds with the text of Appian, who says that the mother stood on the other side of the strait, and witnessed the murder of her son.†

We shall not enter into any enquiry concerning the Scythians, Tauro-Scythians, Cimmerians or the other ancient inhabitants of the Crimea. The Tartars (many of whom have now left their country) are sprung from the Turks, Græco-Scythians, and Nogays of the great horde, the founders of the khanat of Kaptschak. They are divided into many distinct classes, but there are no slaves or servile tribes amongst them. The estates of the lords are cultivated by farmers or hired labourers, whose condition is by no means wretched, and the nobles are the only individuals in the community that can possess land. Each village is still governed by its *Mursa* or elective chief, who enforces the laws, and is at the head of the rural authorities. The dwellings of the Tartars exhibit the rudeness and simplicity of early ages. Stakes or branches of trees are placed without regularity above one another, the chinks or interstices are covered with moss, and the spaces thus enclosed form the habitations of the peasants. The houses of the nobles are equally superficial, and consist only of a single story. The outer ornaments are light wooden pillars, painted in green, red or yellow; the rooms are not provided with chairs or tables, but a number of large pillows, placed round each apartment, serve the double purpose of seats and beds. A large space is left behind the wainscot, and all the necessary articles of household furniture are kept in it.

Character, manners.

The Tartars, like all the neighbouring subjects of the empire, hate their masters, their customs and institutions. The Russians have done little to allay such prejudices, they have done much to increase them. If aversion to

* The Modern Kertchy.

† Clarke, chapter 16.

despotic rulers be considered a heinous offence in the conquered, it must be admitted that they have many redeeming virtues; for every traveller that has visited the Crimea, speaks in high terms of their strict honesty and integrity. The same people are generous and hospitable, a patriarchal simplicity prevails among them, and houses set apart for the reception of strangers are attached to the dwellings of the wealthy. Travellers make mention of a convent of Tartar nuns at Batchisarai; their dress too is said not to be very different from that worn by the white penitents during their religious processions.

Husbandmen.

The improvement in the culture of the vine and the mulberry has not been greatly advanced by the Greek or German husbandmen, and their assistance has not been of much value in the different manufactures. The Slavonic husbandmen are a thriving colony, they are now accustomed to the climate, their number is rapidly increasing, but they are ignorant and ill educated.

History of the Cossacks.

It may be as well to take a short survey of the history of the Cossacks on the Don and the Black Sea, before we attempt to describe their country. Although the territory belonging exclusively to that people is equal in extent to 4600 square miles* or 12,800 square leagues, it contains few towns, and is ill calculated to excite the attention of the geographer. Little Russia is the native country of the Cossacks. The Slavonians of Kiow formed a distinct colony from those of Novgorod; the nature of their government was not the same, their destiny has been widely different. Separated from each other for more than three centuries, they have been at last united; but their language, manners and even physical constitution are so many marks of a distinct people. The Malo-Russians or inhabitants of Little Russia are at present settled in the Ukraine or in the governments of Kiow, Tchernigow, Novgorod-Severski, Kursk, Orel and Tambof.

* Fifteen of these miles are equal to a degree.

BOOK CIV.

Origin of the name.

All the military peasants in these provinces are denominated Cossacks, but in the last age the same name was generally applied to a number of warlike freebooters, who lived under a separate government. The word is of Tartar origin, and signifies an armed man; it was adopted by the Russians at the time when they began to reside in the places which the Tartars inhabited, or when the conquerors mixed with the few of the vanquished that remained, and became habituated to the same sort of life. Constantine Porphyrogenetes mentions *Kasachia*, a country at the base of Mount Caucasus, between the Black and the Caspian Sea. According to the Russian annals, Mitislaf, prince of *Tmoutarakan*, and son of the great Vladimir, gained a signal victory in 1201 over the Kosaki, a people that appear to be the same as the one mentioned by the Greek emperor. They were of Tartar origin, and their name was perhaps derived from their mode of fighting, in the same manner as the *Kirguises-Kaisaks* have been so called from their light armour. Frequent mention is made of the Tartar-Cossacks in Russian history, particularly during the reign of Ivan the First. The *Cossacks-Ordinski* were distinguished much about the same time from the *Cossacks* of *Azof;* the former belonged to the great *Orda* or horde, the principal settlement of the Tartars on the Wolga. These two branches are the last remains of the Tartar empire in Russia. The people were destroyed by the conquerors, many of them fled on their arrival, and joined other Tartar tribes.

Cossacks of Little Russia.

The Cossacks of Little Russia are not mentioned before the year 1320, when Gedemin, great duke of Lithuania conquered Kiow. The origin of their military republic has been ascribed to the terror excited by the victories of that prince. Swarms of fugitives left their country, assembled at the embouchure of the Dnieper, and formed a petty state. They were compelled, in order to resist the aggressions of their neighbours, to live under a military government, and to submit to military laws. Their number was considerably augmented after Kiow was a second time laid waste by the Tartars in 1415, and they in-

creased still more rapidly when that large principality was united to Lithuania and Poland. The new colony was called Little Russia, and thus distinguished from the great empire. The inhabitants extended gradually to the banks of the Dniester and the Bog, and occupied all the country between these rivers and the Dnieper. The Cossacks built towns and burghs in which they resided with their families during winter, but in summer as many as were able to bear arms wandered in the steppes, or, like the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, waged continual war against the Tartars and Turks. Poland was thus protected against its most formidable enemies, and the Poles, far from checking the power of the rising republic, did all they could to promote it. King Sigismond ceded for ever to the Cossacks in 1750, the countries above the cataracts of the Dnieper. Stephen Bathory improved their military government, appointed their hetman or chief, and granted them an extensive territory, but his successors did not act with the same policy. The Cossacks were prohibited from continuing their incursions against the Turks, and it was not imagined that their warlike institutions were thus effectually destroyed. Poles settled in their country, and to them the highest offices in the state were committed. Their clergy too were compelled to renounce the spiritual authority of the patriarch, and to acknowledge the supremacy of the pope. The Cossacks, after an obstinate war, shook off the yoke, and submitted to the czars. That event happened in 1654, about three centuries and a half after the first separation of the Cossacks of the great horde from the Russian nation.

Cossacks of the Russian Ukraine.

Many of the Cossacks left the eastern banks of the Dnieper, and migrated to the southern provinces of Russia during their wars with the Poles. They settled in a fertile region, and retained a stratocracy in their new possessions. Such is the origin of the *Slobades* or the Cossacks in the Russian Ukraine. Their country had been formerly attached to the great duchy of Kiow, but it had remained uncultivated and desert since the first invasion of the Tartars.

BOOK CIV.

Zaporogues.

The branch of the *Zaporogues*, which is much more ancient, is perhaps the most remarkable of any. It was determined, in order to defend the Cossacks in the Ukraine from the invasions of the Tartars, that a number of young unmarried men should occupy the southern frontiers where the Don discharges itself into the Black Sea. Warlike youths flocked from every direction to that station, which soon became a military school, and so great was the attachment of the Cossacks to their new country that they refused to leave it, although exposed on every side to hostile incursions. The colonists were from time to time increased by the arrival of their countrymen who fled from the oppression of the Poles.

It was about the commencement of the seventeenth century that they separated wholly from the Cossacks of Little Russia, whose hetman they had until that time obeyed. They then formed a distinct military state, and elected a chief, the *kochevoi-ataman* or commander of the camp. Their setcha or principal station was a fortified camp, and although its position was often changed, it remained always near the cataracts of the Dnieper, the place from which they derived their name.

Government.

The nature of their military government is not unworthy of notice. War was the sole object of their union, they neglected agriculture and the rearing of cattle; fishing and the chase were their amusements, not sources of emolument, or the means of gaining a subsistence. All the members of the society were obliged to remain in a state of celibacy, and although they generally carried off the wives of their neighbours, it was unlawful to bring a woman within the limits of the setcha. To prevent their population from being impaired, they captured and took away many boys in the course of their expeditions, and their numbers were increased by the accession of criminals or outlaws from every kingdom, and almost all the European languages were spoken in their tents.

The ataman was chosen every year, and no dignity or mark of distinction was conferred on him after the expira-

tion of his office. Every member in the community was eligible to the highest place in the republic. They had no written laws, custom superseded their necessity, and little inconvenience arose from the want of them in the administration of justice. Criminals were judged with impartiality, and punished with extraordinary severity. The murderer was buried alive in the same grave with him whom he had destroyed. Robbers were confined three days in the stocks, and condemned to suffer so many stripes that most of them perished under the lash. These Cossacks had all the virtues and vices of freebooters. They were brave, barbarous and hospitable, sober and active in their military expeditions, indolent and drunken in their houses or tents. The number of those fit to bear arms amounted sometimes to forty thousand.

Their state, though not subdued, recognised at different times the authority of the Poles, the Tartars, the Porte and Russia. Peter the Great demolished their setcha when they joined the revolt of Mazeppa, the hetman of the Cossacks in the Ukraine. They lived afterwards under the protection of the Crimean khans, and were admitted in 1737 among the number of the Russian vassals. All the service they had to perform to the czar was to appear in campaigns when they were required, and on these occasions they were treated and paid like the other Cossacks. They were guilty of rebellion in the war against the Turks, which terminated in 1774; it was then they declared themselves independent, and when colonies were established in the conquered countries on the banks of the Dnieper,* the Cossacks maintained that the territory was their own, harassed the settlers, and by force or stratagem took fifty thousand captives. The empress resolved to punish the rebels and to annihilate a state which, under more favourable auspices, might have become a second Lacedemon. A Russian army surrounded their camp and disarmed them in 1775. A manifesto was published, and they were permitted

* These countries were at that time called New Servia.

BOOK CIV.

to leave the empire, or abandon their military institutions. A few betook themselves to agriculture, the rest repaired in crowds to the Turks and Tartars.

Country of the Cossacks on the Black Sea.

The descendants of these Cossacks still exist under a different name and in a different country. Catherine, by an ukase of the 30th of June 1792, ceded to the Zaporogues, who had distinguished themselves in the last war against the Turks, the peninsula of Taman and all the land bounded by the Feia and the Laba, between the Kuban and the sea of Azof. The extent of that territory is not less than 16272 square miles.* The people were from that time called the *Tchernomorski*, or the Cossacks on the Black Sea, they had the privilege of choosing their ataman, and fifteen thousand inhabitants of Little Russia were allowed to migrate with them to the new settlement. But they have voluntarily renounced their ancient customs, marriage is no longer unlawful, and the predatory warriors are now husbandmen and shepherds. Three thousand, who have enlisted in the service of Russia, make up at present six regiments. Their country, according to the limits to which we adhere, forms a part of Asia, it is contiguous to Circassia on the south, and the steppes of Astrakan on the east. The soil is fruitful and well watered, and if the banks of the Kuban be excepted, the climate is not unhealthy. But it is on these banks that the Tchernomorski settled and founded *Iekaterinodar*, their capital, near rich pastures covered with unwholesome mists. The peninsula of Taman is sometimes changed into an island by the inundations of the Kuban, and is almost always exposed to pestilential vapours. In some parts of the same region, showers of viscous mud rise occasionally from the ground, they are denominated volcanoes by the Russians. The town of Taman is built on the site of the ancient *Phanagoria*, it is officially called *Tmoutaracan*, the name which it bore in the middle ages, when the capital of a small kingdom.

Clay volcanoes.

* Geographical miles, sixty of which are equal to a degree.

Cossacks of the Don.

The Cossacks on the Don form another great branch of the same people. They are not, as M. Muller supposes, descended from the Russians of Novgorod and Moscow; their language is not different from that of the Little Russians. It is likely that they settled gradually in the countries from which the Tartars were expelled. It may be inferred too that the new colonists obtained the Tartar name of Cossacks from their mode of life and their connexions with the former inhabitants, while those of Little Russia were so denominated, because they adopted the same military institutions. It is not improbable that some Tartars remained in these countries, mingled with the Russians, spoke in time their language, and became converts to the Greek church. The rapid increase in the population of the republick, the Tartar words still retained by the Cossacks on the Don, and the difference in their physiognomy tend to corroborate our opinion. The colonists formed a considerable state a short time after their migration. Many young men fled from the slavery which was then introduced in Russia, and added to their numbers. All were admitted into the rights of citizens, even the prisoners of war might share the same privileges. It was in the year 1570, after the campaign of the Turks against Astrakan, that the colonists fixed their capital at *Tsherkask*, which is 70 versts distant from the fortress of Azof. They took from their new residence the name of *Tsherkaski*.

Their nation was then one of the bulwarks of the empire, and they were protected by the czars, in the same way as the Cossacks of Little Russia had been protected by the kings of Poland. Privileges were conferred on them, land exempt from every impost was assigned to them on the frontier, but the emperors wished to subject them to a sort of military vassalage. The Cossacks on the Don were seen for the first time in the Russian armies in the year 1579; since that period, many battles have been decided by their courage; still their love of independence, and their avidity of plunder have on some occasions excited them to revolt.

BOOK CIV.

Country of the Donian Cossacks.

The Cossacks on the Don inhabit at present the plains watered by that river, and their country extends between the governments of Saratof, Astrakan, Woronesch or Voronez and Iekaterinoslav to the sea of Azof. Their territory is about 57,600 geographical square miles in extent, it was formerly larger, but, after an insurrection in 1708, a part was added to the neighbouring provinces. The settlers obtained the privileges they desired, and retained their military customs. The territory of the Donian Cossacks is an immense plain, wholly destitute of hills. Some parts of it are as fruitful as the Ukraine, but the soil in general is barren: the inhabitants have made little progress in the useful arts, and agriculture is neglected. The wealth of the fierce and indolent Cossack consists in cattle, and some subsist by their fisheries. The fish and caviar exported annually from the country amount in value to 500,000 roubles.* The culture of the ground, and rural labour are committed to Russian peasants, whom the Cossack hires for very moderate wages. The greater part of his time is spent in taking care of his horse, and the *tabounes* or herds of the rich are made up of five hundred or a thousand head, but the saddle horses only are sheltered in winter from the inclemency of the season. The Cossack horse, though small and lean, is swift and almost indefatigable. Whenever many of the Cossacks are gathered together, horse racing is almost their sole amusement.

Manners, habitations.

The women weave linen and cloth, they make pelisses, mantles and stockings, they take care of the gardens, the orchards and even the vineyards, which are more numerous in their country than in any other Russian province. The dwellings of the Cossacks are clean, and evince a degree of refinement which we look for in vain in the greater part of Russia. The houses are white, and provided with windows and chimneys, the inmates never shut their doors against the stranger, all of them practice the virtue of hospitality. Costly articles of furniture are seen

* A rouble is equal to four shillings and two-pence.

in the houses of the wealthy, who are now desirous of acquiring knowledge, and many of them send their children to study at Petersburg. A seminary, which is much frequented, has been established at Tcherkask, the chief town in the country. The principal church is adorned with many standards and other trophies collected in most parts of Europe. The inhabitants enjoy civil and political liberty, the monopolies of the crown are not felt, the people may make and sell as much brandy as they please, they pay nothing to the excise, they are exempt from the poll tax, the militia or conscription. If their presence is requisite on any extraordinary emergence, they must rise in mass, but the Cossacks are never unwilling to join the Russian armies, war is an amusement, not a hardship. The Cossack is never happier than on horseback, he is valiant in the battle, he delights in plunder.

Political liberty.

The Russian secretary of war signifies his instructions to the *ataman* or *hetman*, the chief or general of the military nation. The propositions of government are made known to the people, who decide by a majority of votes, whether or not the requisition ought to be obeyed, and in what manner it should be put in execution. Examples are on record, in which the majority have opposed the views of government. The czars have sometimes ceded to their wishes, in other instances the slightest opposition has been construed into a revolt. To form an aristocracy, or to attach the wealthiest families by honourable and hereditary distinctions, is the great object of the Russian cabinet; in this way, it is thought, the democracy may be undermined, or placed on a level with the other Russian governments.

Towns.

The villages of the Cossacks are called stantitzas, they contain from 150 to 400 houses; each stantitza has its elective magistrate, and forms a military company. There are few places in the country that merit the name of towns, and the few that do so, resemble large villages. Tcherkask*

* The town is called Tscherchaskoy by Dr. Clarke.

BOOK CIV.

or the capital which we have already mentioned, is built on a marsh, and supported on piles. The inhabitants sail in spring from house to house. The city is divided into eleven stantitzas, and contains fifteen thousand individuals. The number of habitations may amount to three thousand, and five persons may be allowed on an average for each house. The great quantity of timber used in the town for bridges, houses and streets, is brought by the Wolga, a sufficient supply could not be obtained by the Don. Some of the inhabitants are anxious to remove to Novoi-Tcherkask, which is officially designated the capital, but the greater number are loth to quit their present residence, although it is admitted to be unhealthy.* *Tziemlianskaia* is noted for its vineyards, and their produce is compared to Burgundy. The other Cossack grapes are mostly white, the wines from many of them are sparkling, and although few are of a good quality, the people are not indifferent about drinking them. Two great fairs are held at *Urupinskaia* and *Luganskaia.*

The Don.

The country of the Donian Cossacks is watered by the Don and its feeders, of which the Donetz or Danaetz is the most considerable. Some writers suppose the last river the same as the Tanais of the ancients, but it is more likely that the incorrect notions which the ancients had of the Wolga, led them to confound it with the Tanais. The Don issues from the lake Iwanow, and waters a hilly and fruitful country until it reaches Woronesch.† It is enclosed on the left, from that town to the confluence of the Donetz, by steep banks of chalk, but as it proceeds in its course, it enters an immense and unvaried plain, its streams are not confined by rocks, nor broken by cataracts. Its depth even in these plains is not less in winter than six or seven feet, but the water does not rise in summer to the height of two feet above its sandy bed. Navigation is thus prevented, and the water of the Don, like that of its feeders, is so bad that the inhabitants themselves can hardly

* Clarke, chap. xiii. † Voronez.

drink it. Much advantage, it is thought, might result if the river were united to the Wolga by means of the *Medweditza* or rather the *Ilawla*, but few boats could sail by such a passage from the want of water in the Don, and from the difference in the level, which is fifty feet higher on the side of the same river than on that of the Wolga.* The former receives from the Caspian steppes the *Manytsch*, of which the almost stagnant waters seem to mark the position of an ancient strait between the Caspian and the sea of Azof.

Sea of Azof.

The sea of Azof was more correctly styled the Palus Meotis by the ancients; it is formed by the Don and other rivers, and is not a sea but a marshy lake on a sandy and, in some places, an oozy channel. No rock has been observed in any part of it; its turbid waters† are well stored with fish, but they are shallow to a great distance from the banks. The surface is about twelve inches higher in spring than in the rest of the year. That branch of the lake which is called the Putrid Sea has been already mentioned.

Russian Calmucks.

A horde of Calmucks inhabit the country on the east of the Donian Cossacks, and are in some respects under the dominion of the military republick. They occupy the steppes by which the sea of Azof is separated from the Caspian; their territory is bounded by the Manytsch and the Kouma, and watered on the east by the Sarpa, a small feeder of the Wolga, which flows in a contrary direction from the principal river. The chain of hills that divide the basins of the Don and the Wolga, extends across the steppe. The declivities on the side of the Wolga are steep, but a large and sloping plain descends gently towards the Don. The level of the Caspian Sea at Astrakan, is admitted to be lower than the Sea of Azof by 150 feet, the Manytsch has, at least, an inclination of ten feet, and the hills on the banks of that

Isthmus of the Caspian.

* Lowitz, cited by Georgi, Beschreibung, t. I. p. 290.

† Its waters are brackish but not salt.

BOOK CIV.

river are not perhaps higher than 200 or 300 feet above the Caspian, and 50 or 100 above the Palus Meotis. It follows, therefore, that by deepening the bed of the Manytsch, it might be easy to form a communication between the two seas. Limestone abounds in the rocks on the steppe, which is mostly covered with verdant pastures, but some places on the east are unfruitful; a few oaks, mountain-ashes or willows display in that part of the country their scanty foliage. The wolf, the fox, a great variety of rats and mice, the marten and *felis chaus*, or wild cat of the marshes, the stag and hare, many kinds of ducks, and lastly, the dangerous scorpion-fly are the wild animals on the steppe. The number of Calmucks is not more than 30,000; they live between the Wolga and the Jaik or Ural, they belonged to that horde, the most of which fled in 1770 to Chinese Tartary, rather than submit to the vexatious oppression of Russia; such as remained faithful, agreed to cross the Wolga.*

The Wolga.

We have now arrived on the banks of the Wolga, and in the ancient kingdom or *khanat* of Astrakan. We shall only describe in this place the lower part of it, or the steppe which corresponds nearly with the Russian government of the same name, but extends on the east into the province of Suratow. The Wolga, or the largest river in Europe flows through that country into the Caspian sea. A rivulet rises in the forests of the Waldaic chain, in the neighbourhood of Wolchino-Werchovia, crosses the lakes Oselok, Piana and Wolga, receives the waters of the lake Seliger, and becomes navigable near Rjev-Wolodomirow, at which place its breadth is not less than 95 feet. It then flows eastwards to Kasan, where it is enlarged by the Kama, a very great river, turns to the south, and makes apparently for the sea of Azof; but unfortunately for the commerce of the Russians, its course is determined by the position of the Wolgaic hills, and it discharges itself into the Caspian Sea. Before it receives the Kama, its breadth

Breadth.

* Nomadische Streifereien by B. Bergmann. Nouv. Ann. des Voyages, t. XII. p. 253, &c.

is upwards of 600 feet, and it is more than 1200 after its junction with that river. It encompasses many islands in the vicinity of Astrakan, and its width there is about 14 English miles. M. Guldenstœd supposes its inclination on an average to be equal to six inches and a half in every four versts of its course;* hence, it may be calculated that the lakes which form its source, are little more than 330 feet higher than its embouchure. The depth of its current varies from seven to eighteen feet. Its water, though not good, is drinkable, and it abounds with several varieties of the sturgeon and different kinds of fish. The valley of the Wolga from Ostaschow, is an extensive flat from one to twenty versts in breadth, bounded by sloping plains from twenty to eighty feet in height, which are formed by layers of argil, marl, gypsum, sandstone and coal, or of the same substances as the neighbouring ridge. The course of the Wolga is regular and calm, but the river has made a passage for itself near Nischnei-Novgorod, and, by the sinking of the ground thus occasioned, several large buildings in the town have been overturned.

Polumna or lungs of the Wolga.

The Wolga is speedily swollen by excessive rains and by the melting of snow, so that the streams are diverted into the channels of the feeders, and the flux of their waters is thus impeded. The river during part of the winter is covered with ice, but there are always many apertures in the south, from which currents of air escape, hence they are termed the *lungs* of the Wolga. The *polumna* often change their position, and travellers are thus exposed to imminent danger. Carriages pass on the Wolga two months in the year, and in summer it is crowded with boats. More than five thousand barks constructed in the well-wooded countries of Northern Russia, descend the river, and are loaded with all kinds of commodities, but as these vessels cannot easily return or sail against the stream, the most of them are sold at Astrakan; and it is thought by government that the forests may in this way be speedily

* Four versts are equal to 2 + 2-3 English miles.

BOOK CIV.

exhausted. The *ladia*, one sort of these barks, carry sometimes 100,000 *pouds* of salt.* The ordinary burden of the *Kayoulki* is about 35,000 pouds, they are laden with grain, and the *Nosedi* with timber. The Wolga encloses the central ridge of Russia, and receives the streams of the Oka, the principal river in that fertile region; it communicates in the upper part of its course by the canal of *Wyschnei-Wolotchok* with the lakes Ladoga and Newa; lastly, the Kama conveys to it all the waters of eastern Russia. That large river may thus be considered the great outlet for the inland commerce of the empire. The town of Astrakan may be supposed an Alexandria on a Scythian Nile, but the river enters an inland sea, it does not communicate with the ocean, and the countries that it waters, are inhabited by barbarous nations; still however, the advantages which human industry may derive from the majestic courses of the Wolga and the Danube are not as yet realized.

Name of the Wolga.

The word Wolga, says M. Georgi, signifies *great* in the Sarmatian, it might have been as well had the writer explained what is meant by the *Sarmatian* language. If the old Slavonic or rather the Proto-Slavonic, which was spoken by the vassal tribes of the ancient Scythians, be understood by that incorrect term, we think the etymology not unlikely, although its accuracy cannot now be ascertained.† The Finnic tongues furnish us with a more easy explanation; Volgi signifies a valley, now the bed of the Wolga extends in the great valley of Russia. The Tartars called the Wolga the *Ethele* or *Itel*, which according to some philologists means liberal or profuse, according to others, merely the river. The last name is still retained by the Tartars under the form of *Ichtil-gad*. The most ancient designation is that of the *Rha* or *Rhas*, which has been thought a corruption of the Araxes, a river in Ar-

* The poud is equal to 40 pounds.

† *Wolkoi*, feminine *Walkoia* or *Wolkaia*, might have been in ancient times synonymous with *Weliki*.

menia, although the two words are radically different in the Armenian language.* The Morduates, a Finnic tribe, still term it the *Rhaou*, a name which in their dialect was probably expressive of rain water.† All the etymologies are involved in the darkness of a remote antiquity.

Physical description of Astrakan.

The fertility of Lower Egypt depends on the overflowing of the Nile, but the province of Astrakan is not much benefited by the inundations of the Wolga. The last river does not bring along with it a rich alluvial deposite, and its waters do not fructify the ground. The country that is not inundated by the Wolga consists chiefly of heaths and downs, which, if they be not wholly sterile, are ill adapted for agriculture. As it seldom or never rains in that part of Russia, the people are obliged to water artificially every field that is cultivated on the banks of the river. It must be admitted, however, that the dry and arid heaths are covered about the beginning of spring with fine flowers and useful herbs, with asparagus, capers, onions and liquorice. The stem of the last plant grows to the height of three feet and a half, and its roots, though sometimes as thick as a man's arm, are by no means of an inferior kind. Salsola or glass-wort grows in profusion, and its quality is such as might have been anticipated from a soil so much impregnated with salt. Masses of saline crystals are observed on the beds of lakes *Etsen*, *Bagd* and several others, and the mountain of *Bogd-Ola* is overtopped by a salt hill. There are two steppes in which the same substance predominates, the one situated between the Don, the Wolga and Caucasus, is called the *Step-Astrakanskia*, the other lies between the Wolga and the Ural, and is termed the *Step-Kalmytzkaia*, because it was formerly inhabited by the Calmucks.

Both of these immense plains, according to M. Pallas, must have been at one time covered with the waters of the Caspian sea. A sandy but verdant ridge extends in the

* Saint-Martin, Mem. sur l'Armanie, I. p. 38, 39, 63; II. p. 228, 403.

† Busching, Erbheschreibung, I. 770. Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

BOOK CIV.

eastern Steppe above the downs formed by argillaceous and saline deposites. The Calmucks call it *Naryn*, and the Russians *Rynpeski*. The animals that frequent them are the tarantula, the bustard, the pheasant and pendulino, the cony and the *saigak*, a species of wild goat, of which the horns are not opaque but transparent, it outstrips the swiftest dogs.

Ridge of Rynpeski.

Fertile districts.

The fruitful country in the government of Astrakan is not large, it includes only the low districts on the banks of the Wolga, the Ural and Terek. The vegetable productions arrive at an extraordinary size, and they consist of arbutes, gourds and cucumbers nearly two feet in length, roots and potherbs of every kind, peaches, apricots, mulberries and grapes. All these fruits are very large, a fact that is often repeated by the Russian writers, and the country of Astrakan is, according to them, a terrestrial paradise. But the panegyrists are commissioned by government to persuade husbandmen to migrate to the province; foreigners may therefore judge more impartially, they may speak the truth without disguise. The great expansion of plants and fruits is not wonderful, because they are abundantly watered by artificial means; secondly, because the soil is impregnated with saline and bituminous substances; and lastly, because the heat is excessive during two months in the year. The disagreeable, watery and insipid taste by which all the vegetable productions in Astrakan are distinguished, may be accounted for by the same causes. The Delta of the Wolga may one day be a valuable acquisition to the industrious Russians, but they have to struggle at present against natural disadvantages. The heat is most oppressive, the thermometer rises sometimes so high as 103° of Fahrenheit. The air in a great part of the government is unwholesome from the saline exhalations with which it is surcharged. The north winds are often the harbingers of so intense a cold, that the thermometer falls to 22° below zero. The principal arm of the Wolga, which is 2300 feet in breadth, is frozen in winter, heavy sledges are dragged on it, and

Excess of heat and cold.

the ice remains about two months. The town of Astrakan found the expense of keeping up its vineyards too great, and it was decreed that they should be divided and sold in lots. The grapes are very large and very watery, the little wine made from them is drank by the common people. The attempts to cultivate the olive have failed, and the apricot does not succeed unless much labour be bestowed on it: the trees are often destroyed by severe frosts. Thus excessive heat and extreme cold are the great disadvantages of the climate.

Towns.

The town of Astrakan is inhabited by 40,000 individuals, but in the fishing season the population amounts sometimes to 70,000. It is built on one of the islands formed by the Wolga, its numerous churches, its orchards and vineyards, its large suburbs and citadel, which, like those of Kasan, Nischnei-Novgorod and Moscow, is called the Krem or Kremlin, give it an imposing appearance; but the houses are for the most part built of wood, the streets are dirty and unpaved, the ooze and the putrid fish that are left on the land during the vernal inundations, render the air disagreeable and unhealthy. The trade with Persia and India is considerable, and many of the people are employed in the manufacture of cotton, or in dressing morocco leather. Russians, Armenians, Tartars, Indians and Persians might be mentioned among the inhabitants. The followers of Brahma form a society of bachelors, they reside in a large wooden building without windows; their refectories are clean, and well provided with fruits and pastry. The greater number live by usury. The Tartars are retail traders, but many of them are much in debt to the Indians, and they are often compelled to impignorate and grant the *usufruct* of their wives to their creditors. The *Achrichanski* are sprung from the Indians and the Tartar women.* *Krasnoiar* and *Ienotaievsk*, two other towns on the Wolga, are comparatively of little consequence; *Kisliar*, a place of

* Heyn, quoted by Georgi, Beschreib. II. p. 947.

BOOK CIV.

trade, and *Mosdok* are more important, but they are built on the Terek or narrow frontier, which according to our division is situated beyond the limits of Europe.

Country of the Uralian Cossacks.

The country of the Uralian Cossacks lies on the other side of the Steppe which separates the Wolga from the Ural; it forms a long and narrow belt, consisting chiefly of sandy and marshy land, and extends along the course of the last river. The Ural descends from the Ural mountains, and it is so called in conformity to a decree of Catherine II. Its waters flow in a channel without rocks, and are sufficiently deep to be navigable for small vessels, but its solitary banks are covered with reeds; the noise and bustle of trade have not been heard since the destruction of Saraitschik, a Tartar city.* The Cossacks still repair to the fishing stations at fixed seasons of the year, and it is a curious spectacle to see them assembled when the river is frozen. Some thousand fishermen arrive in sledges at a place appointed, and every man is provided with a spear, several poles and other instruments. They arrange themselves in a long line, and if those in the rear should attempt to take the place of the others before them, their instruments are instantly broken by the guards of the station. The men, however, evince often a great degree of impatience, and the same feeling appears to be communicated to the horses which are trained for these expeditions. As soon as the *hetman of the fishers* departs in his sledge, all the rest fly after him with the rapidity of the wind. The ice is cut, their spears are cast, and a forest of poles rises on the river. Fishmongers, assembled even from the interior of the empire, purchase the fish before they are taken out of the water, and in a short time the sturgeon, the *huso* and *sewruga* quiver on the ice. The couriers of "the *great Uralian army*," travel at full gallop, and deposite the spoils at the court of Petersburg. The value of the fish (including that of the caviar and isinglass) imported

Fisheries on the Ural.

* It is called Saracanco by travellers.

into the interior, amounts to two millions of roubles,* and the duties imposed by the "*ministers of the army*," is not less than 100,000, a sum by which the fund accumulated by that administration is principally formed. The Uralian Cossacks, enriched by the sale of their fish, and also by their cattle, horses and wool, live in affluence; their houses, at least those in Uralsk or the capital, are commodious and clean, strangers are hospitably received, the dress of the inmates corresponds with their fortune, and the turbans or head dresses of the women are adorned with pearls. These Cossacks belong to the sect of the *Roskolniki*, and for that reason they abhor tobacco, and retain their beards.

Towns, manners, &c.

The people are now at peace with the Russians, but their history is filled with the recital of wars and bloodshed. Freebooters separated from the Donian Cossacks, and settled along the course of the lower Wolga; travellers, merchants and ambassadors were alike exposed to their attacks. Ivan II. sent an army against them, and those that were made prisoners suffered dreadful torments, they were suspended by the sides to hooks of iron. Driven from the Ural, they laid waste the shores of the Caspian sea, and having taken Saraitchik, they put every inhabitant to the sword, plundered the houses, and opened the graves in the vain expectation of finding concealed wealth. Their independent republick founded on the banks of the Ural, then the Jaik, submitted to the protection of Russia, and preserved its privileges. But the sanguinary revolt of Pugatschew was not viewed with indifference by these fierce and restless men, they flocked to his standard, and obeyed him as their chief. Vanquished at last by the Russians, their national assemblies were abolished, and their artillery destroyed. The present population is supposed not to exceed 30,000 individuals of both sexes.

Historical remarks.

The same people undertook in the sixth and in the

Their expeditions in Asia.

* A rouble is equal to four shillings and two-pence.

BOOK CIV.

beginning of the seventh century, two remarkable expeditions; in the first they demolished Urganz, a great commercial city near the Aral lake, in the second they took Khivah, and kept possession of it for more than a twelve-month, it was then retaken by surprise, and in consequence of the negligence of the guard. In both the one and the other, they have left a memorable example of what may be achieved by a few brave and resolute men.

BOOK CV.

EUROPE.

Eastern Russia. Finno-Hunns or Uralians.

We shall examine the northern and eastern countries in European Russia, after having made some remarks on the ancient race that appears to have inhabited the whole of that region. The *Laplanders, Finns, Esthonians, Biarmians, Wotiaks, Woguls, Ostiaks, Tchuwaches, Tcheremisses* and some other tribes are sprung from one and the same people. Their physiognomy, language and customs are sufficient proofs of their relationship; at the same time, it cannot be denied that such differences exist amongst them, as to entitle us to infer that the early history of the people is mixed with fable, or involved in obscurity. Asiatic hordes might have governed the country, mingled with the conquered, and by their intercourse, and by the usurpation of a dominant tribe, the national character of the people might have been modified. The Finns were settled during the age of Tacitus and Strabo in the central provinces of Poland, they were denominated the *Fenni* by the historian, and the *Zoumi* by the geographer. The accuracy of the accounts given by these writers has been since confirmed, and the language still spoken in Lithuania is a monument of its former inhabitants. The *Wiatitches*, an ancient tribe in the government of Orel, were, according to Nestor, of Finnic origin. It has been seen that the Hungarian is connected with the

Finno-Hunnic race.

BOOK CV.

Finnic tongues, and the migrations to central Russia, which are recorded in the history of that once powerful and numerous people, might have been discovered by the names of Sonsdal, the river Ugra and the town of Lebedian. Many geographical terms indicate the wide dispersion of the Finnic tribes. The word *ioug*, which denotes a river, is common to more than one feeder of the Don; the name of the Wolga is probably of Finno-Hungarian origin, the Ural mountains were for ages called the *Poyas*, a Finnic noun, that signifies summits. It is very likely that the particular division of the horizon in use among the Finlanders, is a part of an astronomical system which must have been formed between the fortieth and fiftieth parallels, and consequently the civilization of the Finns must have commenced on the shores of the Black and Caspian seas.* But although it be demonstrated that Finnic tribes peopled northern, eastern and southern Russia at a very remote epoch, it does not follow that they occupied exclusively, or even ruled over that immense region, and it is almost superfluous to add that several questions connected with the subject cannot be readily answered.

Connexion between the Scythians and Finns.

Thus it has been asked if the Scythians were Finns. Although no certain information can be obtained, it is in our opinion more probable that the former people were composed of numerous hordes, some of which led a wandering life, others cultivated the ground, and both were in a state of vassalage, or under the dominion of a ruling tribe. Such has ever been the political condition of the Asiatic nations in the centre and the west. The introduction of castes might have taken place after the union of tribes, at all events the system of castes is less applicable than that of aggregate tribes to the conquering Scythians, who, according to the testimony of Herodotus, migrated from Media. It is thus that the seemingly contradictory statements of the ancients concerning the Scythians may be best reconciled. The dominant tribe in Europe on the Tanais and

* Mnemosyne, Journal de Finlande.

the Borysthenes was the same as the one that ruled in Asia on the banks of the Oxus and Iaxartes; hence the identity of their national name, a circumstance that cannot be attributed to chance. The people who submitted to their empire were not all of the same race, they consisted probably of Finns on the Tanais, and Slavonians on the Borysthenes. The resemblance observed in their language and in some words cited by Aristophanes and Pliny may illustrate our hypothesis.* The *royal Scythians*, the rulers of the empire, spoke neither the Slavonic, Finnic, Gothic nor German. The primitives in their language were connected with others in the ancient Zend, Persian and Sanscrit. *Exampiaios*, which Herodotus tells us, signifies a sacred road, may be derived from the Zend adjective *eschae*, pure, luminous, holy, and *pad* or *pai*, a road, the last word is a root common to the Persian and Sanscrit. *Arima*, one, is *oima* in Zend, and *Airopata*, "the women who murder men," or the Scythian denomination of the Amazons, is compounded of *aior*, a man, or *air* in the Armenian and Zend, or *weyor* in some Caucasian dialects, and *pata*, which signifies equal-

* *Skolotes* or the true name of the Scythians, is derived from a Zend word signifying a head or chief.

A soldier of the Scythian guard, which was intrusted with the police of Athens, is introduced in the Thesmo-phores of Aristophanes. The Scythian cannot pronounce the *ph* or *f*, but confounds it with the *p*; now, no Polish words that are not of foreign importation, commence with an *f*. The same person changes frequently the masculine and feminine genders into the neuter, and adds *o* to the last syllable, a letter which is still a common termination of the Russian neuter nouns. Lastly, the Scythian, like the Slavonian, uses the *t* instead of the *theta* or *th* of the Greeks. These are striking indications of the Slavonic character of the Scythians who were sold to the Athenians. But that people were not the same as the royal Scythians, they were their *serfs* or vassals, who were brought into Greece as slaves and mercenaries. Their inability to pronounce not only the *theta* but the χ or *ch* of the Greeks and Germans, proves at least that they were not Goths, and we believe that none of the Scythian words cited by Herodotus are of Gothic origin. *Silis* or the Scythian name of the Tanais is derived from the Slavonic adjective, *Silen*, the strong or powerful. Slavonic roots and compounds may be traced in the names of the kings on the Bosphorus, and the chiefs of Olbia. The Scythians were probably confounded with the mass of the nations over which they ruled.

BOOK CV.

ly to kill and to subdue. Oito-Syros or the Scythian Apollo seems to have derived his name from *aita*, father, and *surya*, light, and *Tamimasades* or their Neptune means the son of the billows. Our researches cannot be presented to the public in their present shape, they were interrupted by the death of a friend who gave us access to all the treasures in his library, still we believe in the conclusion at which we have arrived; and the subject may ere long be ably elucidated by a distinguished philologist.

Connexion between the Finns and the Huns.

Were the Huns of Finnic origin? That question, which is more intricate than the former, has only been lately agitated, and it is not likely to be soon resolved. Yet it may be one day answered in the same way as the other concerning the Scythians. All the hereditary deformity of the Monguls or Calmucks, the dominant tribe, was united in the person of Attila; but the *Chuni* and the *Ounni* of the Greek geographers, the Kuns of the Hungarians, the European Huns, and a race connected with the Finnic tribes, made up the great body of the army, and the Hunnic nation.

We now pass to an easier task, that of indicating the geographical position of the Finno-Hunnic people. The race is dispersed from Scandinavia to the north of Asia, and from the last region to the Wolga and the Caspian sea. Their red or yellow hair, prominent cheek bones and sallow complexion, the thin beard and large occiput are characteristic of their physiognomy; but the Woguls and some Laplanders may be distinguished by their flat features, and dark and coarse hair. Forests and places in the neighbourhood of marshes were for a long time their principal abodes, hunting and fishing their favourite occupations. The Russians always called them *Tchoudes* or strangers; the Scandinavians and Goths termed them *Finne*, a word which is probably derived from *Fiende*, an enemy, or *Fen*, a marsh. The name of Fenni cannot be of modern date, since it was used by Tacitus; but it remained wholly unknown to the people to whom it was applied. The ancient national

name of the Finns is now lost, it is even doubtful if they had any. They style themselves at present the *Sami, Soumi* and *Souomi-Lainen* or the people of the country. The early part of their history is uncertain and fabulous; indeed, with the exception of the Huns and Magiars or Hungarians, none of these nations, although very ancient, populous and widely scattered, have ever become powerful. Their national existence has been transitory, never permanent. No conqueror was ever sprung from them; on the contrary, in those ages, the history of which is faithfully recorded, they have always been the victims or dupes of more active and enterprising neighbours. No annals of their achievements were ever written, their history can only be collected from that of their conquerors—the Scandinavian Goths and Russians.

Progressive discoveries.

Additional facts relative to the Finns, Permians, Laplanders and other tribes that are now extinct, or exist no longer under the same name, have been discovered since the ninth and tenth centuries in the Saga and in some Russian and Scandinavian monuments. The Finnic nations settled on the banks of the Wolga and in Siberia, were unknown before the conquest of these countries by the Russians. The same people, it is said, were mentioned in the *Edda*, the ancient system of Icelandic and Runic mythology. "They were the dwarfs who lived under ground, extracted metals from the depths of the earth, practised sorcery and magic, and often deceived the gods of Asgard." Their religious notions were those of a barbarous people, their credulity converted every natural object into an idol. *Joumala* was the name of the supreme being, and they consecrated, like the Germans, their forests and mountains. The Permians appear to have been the only tribe amongst them, that had a large temple or, at least, a sacred enclosure adorned with altars. The Icelandic historians denominate that people, the Biarmians, and the Russians call them the *Permiaki*. It is known however that in the middle ages, the Scandinavian pirates gave the name of Permia to the

BOOK CV.

Temple of Joumala.

whole country between the White sea and the Ural. To plunder the temple of Joumala was the great end of the Scandinavian piratical incursions, and the same edifice was the subject of poetical descriptions, which are probably much exaggerated. According to these accounts the temple was constructed with much art, the wood was of a rare quality, it was inlaid with gold and precious stones, of which the lustre was reflected on every surrounding object. A golden crown, embellished with twelve diamonds, was placed on the head of the god, his collar was worth 300 marcs of gold, and the rest of his dress exceeded in value *three Greek vessels richly laden.* A gold vase rested on the knees of the statue, it might have held as much water as would have quenched the thirst of four men. But it was filled with precious stones and costly metals. So much wealth attracted all the corsairs of the north, and it was thought a proof of bravery to have carried away an ornament from the temple. Many men set out every year from Heligoland, and several kings of Norway went to pillage Permia, and returned with a rich booty. But Scandinavian mariners, who were not addicted to piracy, visited the coasts for commercial purposes.* The Permians were wealthy, and their country was the theatre of an extensive commerce. The Persians and Indians transported their merchandise on the Caspian, ascended the Wolga and the Kama to the ancient town of *Tcherdyn* on the *Kolva*, a place of great trade, from which the Permians carried the goods to the banks of the Petchora, or the shores of the Frozen sea, where they exchanged them for pelisses and other articles that were sold in the east. Many of their towns now in ruins prove at least that they were once inhabited by flourishing and civilized people. The caravans of the Persians, Armenians and other Asiatic nations repaired to *Bolgar*, the ancient capital of the Bulgarians. That fact cannot now be disputed, it has been placed beyond a doubt by the inscriptions on the coins, and by several Arabic monuments

* Saga of Saint-Olaf, ch. cxlii. See the *Heims-Kringla* by Snorron.

that have been from time to time discovered.* Permia was not exposed to the incursions of the Norwegians after the year 1217; but before that period (probably in the eleventh or twelfth century) the country was conquered by the republicans of Novgorod, and Russian colonists were sent by them to keep the inhabitants in subjection. Christianity was introduced amongst them in 1372 by Stephen, a monk and afterwards a bishop. The town of Novgorod and the Great Duke Vassile Dmitrivich contended about the possession of Permia in the end of the fourteenth or beginning of the fifteenth century, and the townsmen were at last compelled to relinquish all their claims. The Permians retained for some time the liberty of choosing their magistrates, but Ivan† the first appointed a governor in 1543, and the subordinate offices were held by the most distinguished of the natives. The descendants of that populous and flourishing nation are now reduced to an insignificant tribe, that has lost in a great degree its national character by its union with the Russians. The *Siriaines* or the people in the government of Wologda do not differ from the Permiaks, and, like them, are called *Komi*. The *Wotiaki* or the ancient *Woti* of the Novgordians may be included with these tribes. Such are the three branches of the Finno-Uralians.

Finno-Uralians.

The *Woguls* inhabited the confines of Asia, on the east, or rather on the north-east of the Finno-Uralians; and, as their language abounded in Hungarian words, they have been considered the ancestors of the Magiars. But we are apt to suppose them of Calmuck origin from their personal deformity. They might have been subdued by the Hungarians in ancient times, or they might have mixed with them, and thus acquired their language. The Hanoverians have left us an example of the same kind, relatively to the Wends of Dannenberg. The *Ostiaks* of *Obi* are a tribe of the same sort, their history is unknown,

Tribes of Iougoria.

* Rasmussen, Mémoires sur les relations commerciales des Arabes avec la Scandinavie à travers la Russie.

† Ivan or Iwan is in Russian synonymous with John.

BOOK CV.

and it is only by their dialect that their connexion can be proved with the Finns generally, and the Hungarians in particular. The *Iougourian* or *Ougourian* tribes constituted a part of the Magiar empire; but the nucleus of that empire, or the first country of the Hungarians must be sought in more southern latitudes, in less sterile and more populous regions.

Western Finns.

The second branch of the nation is made up of the western Finns or the Finns on the Baltic, who were successively discovered during the expeditions of the Swedes and the Danes, which were continued at different intervals from the ninth to the fourteenth century. Their principal tribes, the *Quaines* or *Cayanians*, the *Ymis*, Iemes or *Haimes*, the *Wesses*, *Kyriales*, *Esthes* and *Lives* appear to have been less civilized than the Permians; but they had, however, their religious notions, some national songs, and were not perhaps ignorant of the art of writing in Runic characters. Many Gothic words, it may be easily supposed, might have been introduced into their language, a natural consequence not only of their intercourse with the Swedes, Danes and Germans, but of their more ancient connexion with the Goths themselves. Their customs and mythological traditions might have been partly borrowed from the same people. These tribes, though harassed, and in a great measure subdued by the Scandinavians, escaped (thanks to their position) the more degrading and oppressive yoke of the Mongol-Tartars and Russian conquerors. Thus, notwithstanding the influence of the Goths and Germans, they still retain the most characteristic qualities of the Finnic race. They consist at present of the *Lives*, or descendants of the ancient inhabitants of Livonia, the *Esthes* in Esthonia, the *Ischores* in Ingria, the *Finlanders* or *Finns* proper in the country to which they have given their name, the *Quaines* or Cayanians, who form only a northern subdivision of the Finlanders, and are now scattered on the shores of Norwegian Lapland, and the *Carelians* or *Kyri-*

ales or people under the dominion of a king,* whose country extended to Olonetz, and who were in ancient times connected with the Wotiakes and Siriaines.

Lapland-ers.

The geographer observes on the north of the western Finns, and in the northern extremity of Europe, a people of pigmies mixed with some families of an ordinary size; but the personal deformity of the Woguls predominates, and their language resembles the Hungarian more than the other western Finnic dialects. The cause of the anomaly shall be afterwards examined in its proper place.

Wolgaic Finns.

The Finns on the Wolga, or the Bulgarian Finns form the third great branch of the nation. They are sprung from the aborigines, or at all events from the earliest known inhabitants of the regions watered by the great river of Russia. They were in ancient times oppressed not only by the Huns and Roxolani, who were perhaps of Gothic origin, but by the Hungarians and Petchenegues or Patzinakites. The Bulgarians and Chazares founded empires in these countries, but their history is little known. The Mongol-Tartars flocked thither, and the Russian czars extended their dominions and Slavonic system of colonization over the confused mass of nations. It is not wonderful that the physical character or moral conditions of a people so often subdued and so often oppressed by conquering hordes, has been modified or changed. The Wolgaic Finns are not unlike the Tartars, but the marks of their ancient origin are not wholly lost. The *Tcheremisses* call themselves Mari, and reside in the government of Casan; their dialect is mixed with the Tartar. The *Tchouvaches* or, according to ancient travellers, the *Souiasches* adored *Thor*, the god of the Scandinavians. The Morduates, who inhabited the governments of Nisihgorod and Casan, were divided into two distinct people, that spoke different dialects; but although they have

* From *Karalaus*, a king in Lithuanian, and probably in ancient Slavonic; or from *Kyros*, the Greek title of the Czars.

BOOK CV.

now mixed with each other, the one tribe is called *Mokschad* and the other *Ersad*. All these states form a part of the Wolgaic Finns. The *Meschtcheriakes* are composed of Finns and Turks, but their Finnic character is very imperfectly preserved. The *Teptiaires*, another mixture of the same people, may still be considered a Finnic branch. The ancient identity between the Baschkires and Hungarians is founded on the testimony of Rubruquis, a traveller of the fourteenth century, but that tribe, though of mixed origin, is not now different from the Tartar hordes.

Description of the country.

All the Finnic nations at present in Russia form a population of nearly three millions. The western Finns amount to 1,800,000, the Uralian Finns to 220,000, and the Wolgaic to 900,000.

Government of Orenburg.

Having mentioned briefly the nations in eastern Russia, we shall attempt to describe the countries which they inhabit. The governments are so extensive that they may be considered so many separate regions or physical subdivisions. The large government of Orenburg or Ufa is not less, nay it is larger than the whole Prussian monarchy; but a great part of it is uninhabited, and its population does not exceed a million of individuals. The *Bielaia*, a feeder of the Kama, waters the inland and northern districts, and its white and turbid streams flow in a bed of marl. It passes between limestone rocks, and is confined near its confluence by calcareous and argillaceous hills. The bones of huge animals, now extinct, have been discovered on its banks or in adjacent caverns; its waters are, for the most part, exhausted in summer, and are ill adapted for navigation. The *Sim*, another river in the same country, waters calcareous districts, and is wholly lost during summer in a subterranean lake. One of its feeders flows during the spring in an open channel, and is enlarged by the principal river at the distance of a verst and a half beyond its entrance into the cavern. Some notice has been already taken of the Ural, or the river in the southern countries of the government. The northern part of the same region is crowned by the southern chains of the great

Uralian range, which has been included in our account of Siberia. These chains abound in iron and copper, a great quantity of ore is obtained from them, and it is not many years since 4110 workmen were employed in forging iron, and 4,970 were engaged in the copper works. The mountains become gradually lower beyond the summit of *Pawdinskoi-Kamen*, which is 6800 feet above the level of the Caspian sea. The Baschkirian Urals form a long ridge of hills on the west of the Ural, but none of their summits are distinctly marked; they are covered with a thin layer of earth, some stunted birch, alder and asp trees. The hills descend on one side towards the channel of the Ural, and on the other towards the great plain of the Wolga. The only name by which they are known is that of *Obstchei-Sirt*, a term that signifies mountains common to all, and serves to distinguish them from the other Ural districts in which the forests are set apart for the use of the mines. Beds of freestone, calcareous rocks, shells and sandstone mixed with argil and marl, are the component parts of the ridge, which extends to the government of Astrakhan, and terminates in the sandy hills of *Rynpeski*.

Iron and copper works.

Obstchei-Sirt.

Each basin and each group might form the subject of geological remarks in a detailed system of physical geography; but we must choose from such a variety, and confine ourselves to what appears most worthy of notice. A series of hills near the river *Dioma* exhibits the phenomenon of isolated masses of fine and compact granite, rising in the form of immense crystals. The workmen of the mines point them out to strangers, and call them *the islands*. There are many grottoes and caverns in the basin of the *Ik*, in which sandstone, calcareous rocks and alabaster predominate. The basin of the *Sok* passes into the government of Simbirsk, and a chain of hills (the *Socolo-Gori*) extends in a direction parallel to its course, and follows the river to the Wolga; although they appear to be transition rocks, springs impregnated with sulphur rush from their sides. Twelve large sulphur springs were observed by M. Pallas within the distance of thirty versts, all of them were situated in the

Granite islands.

BOOK CV.

neighbourhood of Sergiewsk near the banks of the Surgot, a small river, and the Schumbut, a rivulet that falls into it. These springs are never frozen, and so much sulphur is deposited from them, that mines were formerly worked in the district. A large stream enters a deep basin, and forms the *Sulphur Lake* or *Sernoie-Ozero*, which is five versts distant from the village of *Ischtulkina*. The water of the lake is transparent, and strata of yellow and olive-coloured sulphur are observed in its channel. The surrounding atmosphere, even at the distance of two versts, is infected with a very disagreeable odour. A brook that issues from it, is so turbid and white that the Tartars have given it the descriptive name of *Urian-Ly* or *curdled milk*, the Russians call it *Molaschnai-reka*, or *the river of milk*. Beds of ashes and calcined stones were discovered in the vicinity by M. Pallas. A large spring of liquid asphaltos rises near Semenovo, pits are dug beyond it in the direction of Sergiewsk, and the same substance is extracted from them. The steep banks of the Wolga near Kostitchi abound in bitumen, which is now made into sealing wax. The same calcareous banks near Sernoi-Gorodok are mixed with crystals of sulphur as transparent as amber. It is unfortunate that such a country has not been more frequently visited by physical geographers.*

Sulphur Lake.

River of milk.

Town of Orenburg.

Orenburg is the only town of much importance in the government; it forms a point of contact between Asia and Europe, its population exceeds 20,000 souls, it is surrounded with fortifications, and is thus a place of defence against the incursions of the independent Tartars. The Russian caravans that repair to Bucharia, and the Bucharian caravans, by which the merchandise of Asia is conveyed into Russia, pass through the town. The Russians

* Pallas, Voyages I. p. 180, 195. Mémoires sur l'histoire de Russie, par M. Muller, t. IV. 451. Rytsckow, Topographia Orenburgskaia, Petersburg, 1762. See the German translation of the last work by Busching.

and Bucharians strive to cheat each other, and to monopolize the trade; the Armenian has engaged in the contest, but the Israelite has not hitherto taken any active part. The Bucharians traverse in their caravans almost the whole of Asia from one end to the other; China, India, Persia and Russia are some of the countries that they visit. Gold dust, Persian pieces of money, lapis lazuli, and precious stones from India, raw and dressed cotton, sheep skins and many other articles are conveyed by these traders into Russia. The Bucharians travel in caravans of thirty or forty merchants, each individual has from five to ten camels loaded with goods, but some of their caravans consist of four or five hundred camels. They are obliged to pass the territory of the Kirguis-Cossacks, who exact from them two ducats for every camel; the merchants receive in exchange an escort of cavalry, but the guard is not always a security against their being pillaged.

Commerce with Asia.

The Kirguis are styled the subjects of the czar, an honour of which they are wholly unworthy; they bring every year to Orenburg sixty thousand sheep and ten thousand horses; they export different kinds of cloth, coarse linen, tin, glass, coral beads, and other frivolous ornaments, which serve to adorn their women or horses.

They likewise purchase a great many eagles; these birds are highly prized by the Kirguis, who train them to hunt the wolf, the fox and the gazelle. Every eagle is not of the same value, a good judge knows from its appearance and certain marks, whether it can be easily trained; he will part with a swift horse for one, and not give a sheep for another.

Eagles.

The imports of all the towns in the district and in a small part of Siberia, amount to 3,000,000 roubles, the exports do not exceed a third part of that sum. The town of Orenburg is a place of banishment, and one of its largest buildings is the workhouse erected by Reimsdorf, the philanthropic governor; more than a thousand criminals are sometimes

Other towns.

BOOK CV.

confined in it. *Oufa*, once the capital of the government, is situated in the centre of the country, and peopled by 6000 souls. *Troizsk* is a commercial town, and the Kirguis in the interior repair to it. The only other places of any consequence are *Tschelebinsk*, a small town with a population of 1000 inhabitants, and *Kargala*, a large burgh, at which the Tartars of Casan carry on a flourishing trade.

Baschkirs.

All the people in the government amount to 1,000,000; one half of them are Russians, and members of the Greek church, the rest are Mahometans, and differ little from the Tartars in their manners and customs. The Baschkirs, however, may be distinguished from their neighbours; they are sprung from the Hungarians and Tartars, and their mussulman rites are mixed with the ceremonies of a primitive and rude worship. Sacrifices are offered to the sun, the head of a horse is placed above their hives, and the festival of the plough is not widely different from a religious observance of the Chinese. The *Mollah* or priest, who officiates at the marriage ceremony, presents an arrow to the bridegroom, and inculcates the necessity of bravery to enable him to protect his wife. No traces of their ancient language are left, and a Tartar dialect is now spoken by all of them. Their wealth consists in cattle, horses and bees; their food in winter is butcher meat, cakes and honey. A large bottle filled with *koumiss*, a strong drink made from mare's milk, is the great ornament of their dirty cottages. They drink the juice of the birch tree in spring, a liquor which purifies the blood and restores them to health; they become fat, like their flocks, in the fine weather, their principal sustenance is then fresh milk, and their days are spent in rural amusements or pastoral labour. The bear is very fond of honey, and many of these animals are caught in the well-contrived snares with which the Bashkirs surround their innumerable hives. The troops that they furnish to the Russian armies are armed with a bow, a lance, a helmet and a coat of mail. The *Mechtscheriaikes* settled in the fourteenth century, near the embou-

Mechtscheriaikes.

chure of the Oka, and in the neighbourhood of Nischnei-Novgorod; some of them live in the country of the Baschkirs, but they may be easily distinguished from the other inhabitants by their barbarous and singular dress, which is made of horses' hides.* The Teptiaires are a number of Tartars, Wolgaic Finns and Baschkirs, who united with each other after the destruction of the kingdom of Casan. Statute labour is exacted from them by the Russians, but they are exempt from taxes.

Tephaires.

The government of *Saratow* is made up of two distinct countries. The part on the east of the Wolga forms the extremity of the saline and sandy steppe which has been already mentioned in our account of Astrakhan. The quantity of salt taken every year from the lake of Elton is not less than five millions of *pouds*.† The western part of the government differs little from the other regions in central Russia; it produces rye and tobacco, but is ill adapted for the vine. The desert appearance of the country along the Wolga has been changed by the industrious colonists from Germany; the number of these inhabitants is not fewer than 110,000, and the most of them belong to the reformed church.

Government of Saratow.

German colonies.

The town of *Saratow* on the Wolga is a place of trade; the salt of lake Elton is carried thither, but the population does not exceed 7000 souls. Sarepta or the settlement of the Moravian brothers, is a cheerful town, all the inhabitants are artisans or shopkeepers; they have manufactories of velvet cotton and linen, many of them are employed in weaving stockings, making hats, dressing leather and preparing tobacco. Several Tartar tribes are supplied with all their utensils and articles of household furniture from the town of Sarepta. Royal manufactories have been established at *Ista*, its tapestry is sent to Petersburg, and the population is rapidly increasing.‡

Towns.

* Klaproth, Asia polyglotta.

† Two hundred millions of pounds.

‡ Notes sur la statistique du gouvernement de Saratow dans Hermann. Journal de Statistique, Premiere partie, t. I. p. 72, 250.

BOOK CV.

The government of Simbirsk may be compared to the last, but the climate is colder, the vine disappears and the arbute does not ripen; still it is fertile in grain and pasture. The more equable temperature is favourable to the health of the people, the inhabitants are not so widely scattered, they have made greater advances in civilization. Grain and fruits are exported, a great quantity of wheat is raised, and extensive orchards form thick woods in the neighbourhood of the villages.*

Towns.

Simbirsk, which is peopled by 15,000 souls, and Sysran with a population of 9000, are the largest towns in the government. The Kasimof Tartars sell at *Samara* the lamb skins which they purchase from the Kirguis, and which are much valued by the Russians. An ancient *tumulus* is situated near the town; according to tradition, it contains the ashes of a very powerful Tartar monarch, but his name is now forgotten. The hill or tumulus is called *Zarew-Kurgan*, and large serpents, some of them six feet in length, are frequently seen among the old trees that grow on its summit. Many reptiles of the same kind appear to have congregated in the royal tombs.

Zarew-Kurgan.

The angle which the Wolga forms at Samara, marks the southern limit of the Uralian and the commencement of the Caspian climate. Excessive heat is seldom felt, the succession of the seasons becomes regular, and plants are in blossom before the middle of April; the fields are then covered with the Siberian pasque-flower, and the wild tulip abounds in the woods.

Government of Kasan.

The Kama enters the Wolga in the government of Kasan, and the extensive plains near the confluence of the two rivers are fruitful in rye, barley, buck-wheat and lint. The forests on the south and west of the Wolga, consist mostly of oaks, but the opposite banks are planted with pines and beech trees. The lint corps are sometimes destroyed by the severity of the weather, and the fruits in the

* Description of the government of Sembirsk, in the Statistical Journal of Russia, 3d year. Vol. II. p. 103.

orchards are of a very ordinary quality. The climate resembles that of northern Russia, not in the excess but rather in the duration of the cold, in the keen air of spring, and in the frequent recurrence of morning frosts.

Town of Kasan.

*Kasan,** *Kosan* and *Osan* are the different names of a town of 50,000 inhabitants, and one of the most important in the Russian empire. Its Tartar kremlin, its fifty churches and eleven convents are placed on a number of hills, on which the greater part of the town is built. The meadows that surround it on three sides are inundated in spring by the Wolga, and it then appears like an island on a lake. The houses are built of wood, the streets are paved with timber, and the stranger observes all the defects of the Russian towns. But Kasan is distinguished by the industry of its inhabitants, and the Russian and Tartar townsmen are enriched by their commerce with Siberia, and by their trade in Russian and Morocco leather. The university does all it can to promote the diffusion of knowledge; several of its members have been sent on scientific expeditions into the interior. A seminary for the education of missionaries and priests is established in the convent of Silandovo, and the children of the Tartars, Tcheremisses and Mordvines resort to it. Kasan was the ancient capital of a Tartar kingdom, which was taken by the Russians in 1552; the wealthy repair to it in winter, and they rival the nobles of Moscow in the luxury of the table, and in sumptuous entertainments.† The other towns in the government, such as *Kosmodemiansk* and *Tcheboksary*, each of which contains 5000 souls, are not of much importance. Busching tells us that the extensive ruins of *Briaikhimova* or *Bolgari*, the ancient metropolis of Great Bulgaria, are situated in the province. Arabic and Armenian inscriptions, pieces of money, and many remains of ancient splendour have excited the curiosity of travellers.‡

* Kasan is a Tartar word; it signifies a chauldron.

† Erdmann's Beitræge.

‡ Lepekhin, Voyage, first part. Fræhn, Narrative of Ibn-Foslan.

BOOK CV.

Manners of the people. Tchouvasches.

The three governments that have been last mentioned, are inhabited by different people, who are not of Russian origin. The *Tchouvasches*, whom Bremner denominates the *Soniaski*,* differ from the other inhabitants by their black hair, the thin beard, which descends to a point under the chin, their prominent cheek bones, sunk eyes, and the stupid expression of the Calmucks.† Their language contains but few Finnic words, it is equally different from the Tartar, and is probably a dialect of the ancient Hunnic.

Mythology.

It is a remarkable fact in the mythological history of the tribe, that *Tor* or *Tora*, the supreme divinity, was known by the same name to the Scandinavians, and worshipped as the god of thunder. This is not a solitary instance, the secondary deities of the Tchouvasches were called *Borodon*, a name that corresponds with Bora in the Edda. The malevolent principle, the wicked god, the enemy of Thor, is termed *Seita*, but it has been incorrectly affirmed that Seita was the same as the Satan of eastern nations, for the word signifies in Scandinavian a sorcerer or wizard, and it is expressly said in the Edda, that Thor in his journey through the east slew the magicians, or, in other words, erected the Wodinic worship on the magical altars of the Finns. The *Ividies* were the Dryads of the Scandinavians, and the Tchouvasches worshipped their rural divinities, the beings that roamed among the trees or *ivos*. The same tribe adored the sun, and sacrificed a white horse during the festival of the great luminary. They surrounded the tombs of their parents with pillars, and offered annual victims to their manes. The *ierik* was a bunch of fifteen rose branches, it was suspended in the huts or *kils*, and worshipped as an idol. The priests were called *iomma*, a word that recalls the Finnic name of the supreme power, and an Eddaic surname of the horses of the sun. It is indeed a pity that a people whose rites were so much connected with those of other nations,

* Brenner, Epit. Mosis Armeni, p. 107.

† Muller, Mémoires pour l'Histoire Russe.

was not earlier observed by men versed in the history of ancient worships. The civil customs of the Tchouvasches were not different from those of barbarous tribes; the father sold his daughter, and she became the slave of her husband or purchaser; all the neighbours of the different proprietors assisted him in collecting the harvest, and partook of a feast at the end of their labour, the same fraternal assistance and other good offices were performed gratuitously to widows and orphans.

The *Tcheremisses* inhabit the governments of Simbirsk, Kasan, Wiatka and Nischneigorod, and although they resemble the Tchouvasches in the form of their features, they are a stronger and finer race of men. Their dialect is more nearly allied to the Finnic, they call themselves *Mari* or men, and distinguish the Tchouvasches by the compound name of *Kurk-Mari*, or mountaineers. Like the Mordvines, they are indigenous to the country, and their names are in all probability derived from rivers and mountains. The Russians were encouraged and assisted by the Tcheremisses in the conquest of Kasan, but many of the latter continued faithful to the Mahometan worship. The privilege of having four wives at the same time is not abolished, and heathen prayers to the family idol precede the marriage ceremony of those who have embraced Christianity. The Pagans amongst them adore the Finnic divinity *Ioumа* and his wife *Ioumanava*, and conciliate their favour by cakes or other offerings. *Aquebarem* or the god of the harvest is devoutly worshipped, and his aid is implored in one of the three great festivals. A sorrel horse is sacrificed in the festival of the spring, and a white horse is slain on the grave of a rich man by a *moukschan* or magician.* Some trees are cut in thick woods, the ground is levelled and the place is thus changed into a *keremet* or sanctuary. The country is not so large as it once was, a great part of it is

Mythology.

* Muller, Mémoires sur l'Histoire de Russie, III. pp. 332, 345, 392, 410. Strahlenberg, p. 346.

BOOK CV.

inhabited by Russians; and the Tcheremisses live no longer as hunters or wandering shepherds, but are now devoted to agriculture, many are good husbandmen, they possess much corn and numerous flocks. The men have adopted the costume of the Russian peasants, but they still shave their heads; and the women retain their large cylindrical bonnets, which are covered with fringes, glass beads, or pieces of money. Their dress in summer is very light, it consists of a single shift above a pair of trowsers, but the baubles and bells, of which the fair Tcheremisses are so fond, announce their approach at a great distance. An historian maintains incorrectly that the Tcheremisses have no calendar, for M. Pallas has shown that their year commences in the month of March.* None of them can write, and the memory of past events is preserved by certain marks cut on a piece of wood; still, it is said, they possessed formerly written books, which no one could understand, and which were in later times devoured by the *Great Cow*.

Manners and customs.

Mordvines.

Although the *Mordvines* or *Morduates* are more numerous in Pensa and Nischneigorod than in the governments on the eastern Wolga, they cannot be considered apart from the two people last mentioned. They have mingled with the Russians, but they are sprung from the Finns, and consist at present of three classes, the *Mokschanis*, *Erzanis* and *Karatai*. The last is the least populous of the three, and the two first, it was believed, spoke dialects so widely different, that persons of either tribe could hardly understand each other, an assertion which is completely refuted in the valuable tables of M. Klaproth, yet that distinguished scholar included the Erzanis only in the tribe of the Mordvines. Their name has been derived from *Ertem*, a province of the Patzinakites, and also from *erdæ*, an Hungarian word, which signifies a forest. The only difference between the Erzanians and Mokschani consists in the comparatively barbarous state of the former; fewer amongst them have

* Lévesque, Histoire de Russie, VII. 366. Pallas, Voyage, VII. p. 23.

embraced Christianity, all are more impatient of restraint, and less accustomed to a settled life. The Mordvines are probably the descendants of the *Mordens*, who, according to Jornandes, were the vassals of the Goths under Hermanaric.* They once occupied a wider country, and the town of Muron on the Oka, says Nestor, was the residence of their princes. They have neither, adds M. Pallas, temples nor idols, and *schamanism*† in its simplest form is the religion of these wandering tribes. They adore a supreme and invisible being, but their magicians or *schamans* can conciliate his favour and disarm his wrath.‡ We are inclined to place more confidence in the account of M. Lepekhin, who declares they worship the sun, and offer sacrifices at the new moon.§

The Tartars of Kasan.

The Tartars or, according to the more correct denomination of M. Klaproth, the *Turks* of Kasan enjoy in a greater degree the blessings of civilization. Industrious, sober and generous, the conquered people are superior far to the Russian conquerors. Their physiognomy is very different, though not a tall race of men, they may be easily distinguished from the Russians by their long beards, commanding features, dark and piercing eyes. Strict observers of religious ordinances, abstaining from wine and whatever is not sanctioned in the Koran, they are nevertheless tolerant, hospitable and kind to Christians. Their women appear before strangers, and M. Erdmann was able to describe, for he had seen a Tartar marriage. The dress of the men resembles that of eastern nations, but it is necessarily modified by the nature of the climate. The women adorn themselves with pearls and jewellery, and their costume varies according to fashion. The corruption inseparable

* They are called *Mordens* and *Mordensimmis*, but the termination *simmis* is the Slavonic word for country.

† Schamanism is the religion of the schamans or the Tartar priests and magicians.

‡ Pallas, Voyage, I. p. 91—123.

§ Lepekhin's Journal, I. p. 100. German translation.

BOOK CV.

from great cities is unknown, the men are honest and the women are chaste. A family is a patriarchal monarchy, of which the husband is king. Polygamy is permitted by the laws, but few of the Tartars have more than one wife, a natural consequence of civilization. It sometimes happens, however, when the mistress of the house is old, that her lord takes a young bride, who shares his bed, still the first wife reigns, and the second claims no share of the domestic honours. These Tartars speak the Turkish or their native language very purely, and many of them are well acquainted with the Russian and Bucharo-Persian. Their commercial activity, numerous schools and different institutions place them far above the other inhabitants.

Government of Wiatka.

The two large governments of Wiatka and Perm are the coldest, highest and most northern, but not the most sterile portion of the central Uralian region. A large plain of argillaceous land in the first government, slopes gently from the north-east to the south-west, and its inequalities are mostly occasioned by the course of rivers. The heights near Sarapul and Ielabula contain copper ore and beds of schistous sandstone. The *woloks* or carrying stations between the sources of the Kama and the Wiatka on one side, and the Dwina and Petschora on the other, form an extensive plain, which rises imperceptibly and reaches the height of 620 feet above the banks of the Wolga in the neighbourhood of Kasan, or of 120 feet above the sea; an elevation equal to a fourth part of the ordinary altitude of the Ural mountains. Rye, barley, lint and hemp thrive in the southern districts, but the country near the sources of the two rivers is not so productive, the climate is too severe, and in many seasons the inhabitants are compelled to mix acorns or the bark of the mountain-ash and fir tree with their flour. The population throughout the government of Wiatka amounts to 1,300,000, but many individuals emigrate for a time, and serve in the boats that ply on the Wolga.

Ridge.

Towns.

Wiaitko, a place of trade, is peopled by 12,000 persons,

and its grain and other agricultural produce are conveyed by the Dwina to Archangel. The inhabitants of *Sarapul* on the Kama send their vessels to Astrakan, and exchange their commodities with the Samoyedes on the Petchora. Sarapul was built by Finnic or Tartar tribes, and Wiaitko was first known by the Russian name of *Chlinow* or *Klinof*. *Slobdosk* is peopled by 5000 souls, and carries on a great trade in iron and copper. The ruins of many ancient Finnic towns are situated in the same province, and although the remains of the one near *Schestakow* are the most extensive, they are less remarkable than those of *Tscharto-va-Gorodeschte* or the Devil's town in the district of Ielabuga.

Wotiaikes.

The Wotiaikes are a Finnic tribe and one which is not much mixed with foreigners. They are a weak and ugly race of men, most of them have red or yellow hair and little or no beard. We might be apt from their physiognomy to consider them a branch of the Votes, who formerly inhabited the neighbouring country on the west, which was subject to the republick of Novgorod. Some Tcheremissan, Wogul and even Gothic* words have been introduced into their dialect, in other respects it is almost the same as the Permian. The people call themselves *Oudi* or *Oud-Murt*, and the Tartars distinguish them by the name of *Ari*.† Their territory commences at the Tanyp, a feeder of the Bielaia, in the government of Orenburg, and the opposite frontiers are not far from Sarapul. It thus includes *Kam-Kossip* or the districts between the lower Kama and the Wiaitka, and extends on the upper banks of the last river to the country near Orlow, and the sources of the Kama in the vicinity of Kai. The town of *Arsk* in Kasan, was once inhabited by princes of the same nation; it was likewise the residence of nobles, at present it is peopled by villagers. The peaceable Wotiaikes earn a subsistence by tilling the ground and by rearing bees; their industrious

Mode of life.

* *Ar*, a year; *suser*, an eldest sister; *schondi*, the sun.

† The first of these names signifies hospitable, the second remote. Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta, p. 185.

BOOK CV.

wives prepare coarse cloth, felt, hides and whatever is necessary for the dress of their families. Some of the men work as wrights or turners, and make use of a particular varnish, which not only imparts a bright lustre, but hardens and improves the quality of the wood. Few have more than two wives, and as every girl is sold, he who cannot afford to buy his bride, tries to carry her off. If the fair one consents or yields to the wishes of her lover, she may be purchased at a very cheap rate; but if she refuses, or if the adventurous youth is caught by her parents, he receives many stripes, and the commercial value of the maiden is nowise impaired.

Names of divinities.

The names of their divinities are different from those of the other Finnic nations. The supreme being is called *In-Mar* or the Man in the Heavens,* his mother is *Mouma-Kaltsina* or the universal principle of fecundity, and his wife is *Chounda-Mouma* or the mother of the sun, the stars and the inferior gods. Their festivals, sacrifices, priests and holy places differ little from those of the Wolgaic Finns, but other parts of their superstition are more connected with the creed of the Calmucks and the Lamas. While the Tchouvasches change the wicked after death into so many skeletons that roam in a frozen desert, the Wotiaikes place them in caldrons of burning pitch.† The same barbarians keep their feasts every year on the tombs of their forefathers, and the stomach, blood and entrails of the victims are reserved for the infernal gods.

Government of Permia or Perm.

The government of Perm is partly situated in Asia, the European portion includes the countries watered by the higher Kama, but the lofty plains in the government of Wiatka extend to Tcherdyn, Solikamsk and Krasno-Ufimsk. The same line may be considered the limit of what has been called the promontories of the Uralian

* From *in* or *ien*, the heavens, and *mar* or *murt*, man.

† Georgi, Nations Russes, p. 43, 59.

mountains, most of which form sloping plains or detached hills. Calcareous rocks of the second formation are found among beds of sandstone, argil and marl. The numerous caverns abound in stalactites, and the one near Koungour is divided into four large apartments. The sinking of the ground is frequently caused by subterranean waters, which undermine the marshy land, and the beds of many small lakes are thus formed. The first or western chains in the Ural range consist of limestone, and in a few places that substance is mixed with petrifactions. Between these chains and the granite heights or summits of the range, are metalliferous mountains composed of hornblende rocks, argillaceous schistus, gneiss and lamellated granite. It is from these mountains that the rich ore is extracted, which furnishes constant employment for 50,000 workmen, and a greater supply of iron than is necessary for the whole Russian empire. Copper is not so abundant, but the quantity obtained is not less than 125,000 *pouds*, and the gold washings which are situated in the Asiatic part of the government, have become much more productive of late years.* All the salt marshes lie in the vicinity of the limestone and gypsum hills, and in the beds of the lakes are observed strata of shells, and the fossil remains of elephants and other animals.† The number of workmen who live by exporting salt amounts to 15,000.

Western Uralian mountains.

Ores.

The extent of the forests is to that of the ground in cultivation as seventeen to one, and the climate, which is cold and humid by reason of the latitude, is rendered more so by thick shades, numerous springs and masses of eternal snow or ice collected in caverns and ravines. The rivers near Solikamsk are frozen about the end of October or beginning of November, and sledges or skates are used six months in the year. The hills in the south of the government are, on the contrary, exposed to the burning winds from the Caspian steppes. Vegetation varies greatly,

Climate.

Vegetation.

* Nouv. Ann. des Voyages, Novembre 1825.

† Mémoire sur les Productions Naturelles de Perm, dans la Description Economique, &c. de M. de Moderach.

BOOK CV.

but the birch is the most common tree in the forests on the high country, and next to it are the pine and different kinds of fir; the larch and cedar of Siberia are of rare occurrence. The mountain-ash, the lime, the maple and the sorb are seen in the plains and fruitful districts. Corn does not always ripen in the northern part of the province, and the inhabitants consume, in addition to bread, a great quantity of spirits distilled from grain. As we descend southwards, we observe different fruit trees, and the melon and the arbute grow on the Asiatic side of the Urals.

Towns.

The industry of the government is concentrated in the *sawodes* or villages of the mines, in the forges and foundries. The towns, on the other hand, are principally inhabited by merchants, not by the working classes, and most of them are neither large nor populous.* Perm, the capital, does not contain more than 6000 inhabitants, and *Kangari*, which boasts of its tan-pits and soap works is only peopled by 7000. A great trade in salt is carried on in the ancient town of Solikamsk, but its population does not amount to 5000 souls. The large burgh or *Slabode* of *Nischnei-Nevianskt* is inhabited by 1200 *Roskolniki* or members of the ancient Greek church, and is a place of some importance from its trade and manufactures, but it ought to have been mentioned in our description of Asia, for, according to the limits to which we adhere, it is situated in that continent.

Permians and Siriaines.

The Permians and Siriaines are two tribes of the same people, their customs, manners and dialect are not different. The former reside on the banks of the Kama, the second inhabit the countries towards the north, and are scattered on the Witchegda and the Mezen in the governments of Wologda and Archangel. Both call themselves *Komi-Murt* or the people of the country. The Permians are sometimes distinguished by the name of *Sudai*, but at present there is little difference between them and the Rus-

* Hermann's Mémoires de Statistique, III. p. 55.

‡ The adjective *Nischnei*, which is prefixed to the names of several Russian towns, signifies lower.

sians, and the greater number speak the language of that people. Their mythology and history are little known, the one and the other have been imperfectly handed down by oral tradition. It has been proved by some documents and records, exclusively of the numerous ruins, that Permia or Perm was once a kingdom, which comprehended perhaps all the countries on the White Sea, the Urals and the Obi. It is uncertain whether that Finnic monarchy or *Tchordskoy-Tzarstwo*, as it is termed by Russian antiquaries, existed in the time of Augustus, and ended in the fourth and fifth centuries after the invasion of the Huns, or whether the monuments of ancient splendour and industry are merely the remains of the Biarmian kingdom, which was known to the Scandinavians during the middle ages, visited by Persians and Arabians, and finally subdued by the Russians in 1472. The last supposition is, in our opinion, very probable, but we do not mean to deny the anterior existence of a Finnic, particularly a Hungarian or Magiar kingdom, which might have been destroyed after the migration of its most powerful tribes to central Russia and the banks of the Danube. The true history of the country begins in the time of St. Stephen, the apostle of the Permians, who invented an alphabet in 1375. The inventor wrote several books in the new characters, converted an immense number of heathens, and established the first metropolitan see in Perm, near the convent of *Oust-Wymsk*. It is melancholy to add that the missionary was aided in the work of conversion by the arms of barbarians, and the torch of incendiaries. His labours were rendered easy by a Russian army, and the frightened heathens with their children and idols fled for safety to the rocks of the Woguls and the frozen marshes of the Samoyedes. St. Stephen died in 1396, and a short time afterwards his life was written by the monk Epiphanes, a work of which a small part only is now extant. The writings of the Saint were lost by the negligence of the priests, and his alphabet, it is said, resembled the one invented by Cyril,

Ancient monarchy of the Tchoudes.

Alphabet.

BOOK CV.

but none of the characters are at present known.* M. de Moderach discovered some ancient records in the archives of Tcherdyn, and the names of fourteen princes and princesses who ruled over *Great Permia* are mentioned in these documents. All of them were Christians, and when the male dynasty became extinct, the succession passed to females. Tcherdyn, says M. de Moderach, is built on the site of Great Perm, but, according to other authors, it is situated on the north-west of that town, at the confluence of the Witchegda and the Wym.

Superstition.

Some monuments of an ancient religion, once common to all the Finnic nations, still remain in the forests of Permia. Different *keremets* or consecrated enclosures have been lately examined, metallic idols have been found and destroyed. Herberstein mentions a gold statue, which was probably an object of Permian superstition; it represented an old woman with a child in her arms, the whole was surrounded with tubes and spiracles, and the wind in passing through them produced harmonious sounds.† The spot on which the temple of the *Solataia-Baba* stood, is now unknown, but it is supposed to have been erected on the north-east of Tcherdyn, near a feeder of the Sosva.

* Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta, p. 188.

† Adelung's Life of Herberstein, p. 385.

BOOK CVI.

EUROPE.

European Russia. Third Section. Northern Russia. Countries on the White Sea.

BOOK CVI.

Aspect of the country.

THE country from the Ural mountains to the shore of the White Sea is cold and unfruitful; the climate is of such a nature that the industry of man can hardly contend against the elements, and the scanty produce of his labour enables him merely to lengthen out a painful and sometimes precarious existence. The vivifying principle of heat is diminished, corn withers, and the marshy meadows are covered with rushes and mosses. Trees disappear on the sterile plains, the plants are stunted, and the whole of vegetable nature proclaims the vicinity of the pole. The cold soil is not fructified by the solar rays in the long days of summer; but in this almost uninhabitable region man has established his ministerial arrangements and political divisions. The governments of *Wologda*, *Archangel* and *Olonetz* make up the countries which we are about to describe; still we shall be guided rather by the limits that seas and rivers afford us, than by such as are of a conventional character. The provinces on the east and the south of the White Sea form what has been already termed *the maritime Uralian region*, those on the west may for the most part be included in the Laponic countries. The topographical details that are

BOOK CVI.

contained in the statistical accounts of Russia, may be naturally arranged under these two physical sections.*

Country on the east of the White sea.

The land on the east is an immense plain, which descends from the sources of the Petchora, the Mezen, Witchegda, Dwina and Onega to the shores of the White Sea. The low hills by which the course of the rivers is determined, are the only objects that vary the prospect. The sources of the Petchora and Witchegda are not more than 1200 feet above the level of the sea, those of the Mezen are about 600, and the greatest height of the Onega is less than 300. Some hills are situated in the southern part of the countries watered by these rivers; but few rocks are scattered in the northern districts, which consist of valleys and marshes. The large plain is bounded on the east by the *Kammenoy-Poyas*, a chain connected with the Ural range, and probably a continuation of the primitive calcareous heights, in which the subterranean strata are not so deep as in the collateral chains. Its greatest elevation does not exceed 3600 feet, and its utmost breadth is supposed to be equal to ten versts. It descends and disappears near the sources of the Ousa.

Rivers.

The Petchora, the Mezen and the Dwina are the three great rivers in the country on the east of the White Sea. The first, though of no great celebrity, is not inferior to the Loire in the length of its course, but it flows through the most solitary deserts in the Russian empire. A hunter is rarely seen in the woods, a Samoyedan seldom brings his rein-deer to pasture on its banks. The Kammenoy-Poyas extends to a certain distance in a direction parallel to the course of the river, and its steep calcareous banks are broken by caverns and ravines.† It is enlarged by the Ousa, and passes after its junction through a very different country, where its low banks are surrounded by immense heaths. Few fish are found in its clear water, and

* See the tables of the physical sections in Europe.

† Petschora is the Russian word for a cavern; hence the name of the river. The convent of *Petschori* is situated in the government of Pleskow.

those in the Frozen sea are perhaps prevented from ascending its channel by two very salient promontories. The *Mezen* is nowise remarkable, and the country which it waters, contains but few objects likely to attract the attention of the physical geographer. The *Double Dwina* is formed near *Weliki-Oust-Ioug*, by the junction of the *Ioug* and the *Suchona* or the outlet of the lake *Koubau*. It is there that the Dwina is known by its name, but it does not become a large river before it reaches the confluence of the Witchegda, which flows from the east, in a direction opposite to the Suchona. It is navigable, and abounds in fish; its breadth is about 200 yards, and the ice remains on it from the end of November to the beginning of April. The *Onega* does not issue from the lake Onega, but from several others, which, although in the neighbourhood, are not connected with it. The *Vaga* a western feeder of the Dwina, and the *Vig* and *Sig*, which fall into the White sea, are still distinguished by their Scandinavian names.*

Dwina.

The temperature varies little in different districts, for all of them are exposed to the north wind. The humid forests on the south, and a frozen sea on the north render the winters long and severe. The heat is at intervals oppressive during the long days of summer, but so sudden is the transition produced by a northern breeze, that the workmen sometimes appear in the same hour with their light dresses and the thick furs of Siberia. The mornings in June are generally frosty, and they are always so in the month of September. Ice may be constantly found beyond the 67th parallel at the depth of a few feet below the ground. But the greatest degree of cold has been observed in Wologda and Oustioug; it is uncertain, at all events it has not been proved by thermometrical observations, that the temperature diminishes in more northern latitudes.

Climate.

* *Schiœning's* Origin of the Norwegians, p. 105. Edda, Grimmis-Mal, Str. 27, 28, 29.

BOOK CVI.

Soil and productions.

The whole region may be divided into forests, heaths and rocks, for the cultivated land and the natural meadows occupy so small an extent that they need not be taken into account. The forests in the three governments are very large; the pine, the fir and the larch predominate, and the war ships at Archangel are made of the last tree. The inhabitants export planks, staves and tar. The soil is marshy and ill adapted for agriculture; still a small quantity of barley is sown, and in some years reaped. The potatoes are much below the ordinary size, and all the grain and farinaceous plants are inadequate to the consumption of a scanty population. The deficiency is supplied by lichens, by the roots of the *Calla palustris*, and the ground bark of the fir. Rye succeeds sometimes near Wologda and Olonetz, but it is not unfrequently destroyed by a single night's frost. The horses are strong and the oxen are well shaped, but the sheep is not a valuable animal, the mutton in the country is hardly eatable, and the wool, which is of an inferior sort, is only used in making *wadmal* or a coarse cloth worn by the peasantry.

Horses and Oxen.

Venison, grouse, and different kinds of game are exported from Wologda; among the other commercial articles may be mentioned *rischikes* or a species of small mushroom which is considered a great delicacy by the Russians; a bottle of them is sold for two roubles. Traces of metal have been observed, but it is nowhere found in great quantities. The salt pits at *Sol-Wytchegotskai*, *Segora*, and more particularly in the neighbourhood of *Totma*, on the Kouda and Lesenga, are productive. The banks of the Wym are covered with petrified shells, and the bones of elephants are occasionally found on the Petchora.

Shrubs.

The fruit-bearing shrubs are the most valuable gifts, which nature has bestowed on the wretched inhabitants of these bleak regions. The *moroschka* or Norwegian *chamœmorus* is a powerful anti-scorbutic, and of an agreeable taste. The red and black whortleberry, wild cherries, gooseberries and different fruits of the same sort

are very common. The vegetables which are cultivated are radishes, turnips, white cabbage, onions and garlic.

Archangel.

Archangel or *Gorod-Archangelskoi*, the convent of the saint and archangel Michael is the most commercial town in these provinces. It is situated on the banks of the Dwina, at the distance of ninety versts from the White sea, and according to a late measurement, it is about three miles and half in length, and less than two in breadth. The population consists of 15,000 souls; yet all the houses, and there are nineteen hundred, all the churches, eleven of which are reserved for the Græco-Russians, and one for the calvinists, are built of wood, in short, the commercial hall is the only brick building in the city. The English carried on a lucrative trade in that part of Russia during the 16th century, before that time these shores were never visited by trading nations. The navigation of the White sea may therefore be said to have been discovered by British traders about the year 1553. The Dutch and Hamburghers followed the example of the English, and the town of Archangel was built in 1584, near the convent of the holy Michael. It was for a long time the only port in Russia, but its commerce was nearly destroyed when Peter the First made the town that bears his name, the principal harbour of the empire. Before the decree of the czar was announced, Archangel was the great mart of the goods that passed into Siberia, and from the last country into Europe. Several articles of exportation are still sent thither from different parts of European Russia by Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki; and the foreign vessels which arrive at Archangel receive in exchange grain, lint, fish oil, wood, tar, tallow, wax, linen, iron bars and edder down. The value of the articles exported amounts to six millions of roubles, and the town is also the capital of a naval station. As there are neither husbandmen nor flocks in the neighbourhood, the ordinary articles of food are brought from a distance. Cod and ling may be easily caught, and the people consume a great quantity of fish. Several vessels are employed every

BOOK CVI.

Fisheries.

year in fishing sea cows near Spitzbergen and Nova Zembla, and in the herring fisheries on the White sea; many of the fishermen winter at Spitzbergen. Bacstrom, a Dutch navigator, who visited the Russians in their winter quarters, says they were well provided with every thing. Their houses or cottages were made of wood, they lived by hunting, and killed plenty of white bears, blue foxes and rein deer. Such were their amusements during the dreary winters, and in summer they were more profitably employed in fishing and shooting edder ducks. No trees grow on the islands of Spitzbergen, and the fishermen might perish from cold if timber were not thrown on the coasts; but a quantity sufficient for building a house is often found on the shore. The exercise which the Russian hunters take is the best preventive against many maladies. Storch affirms that they abstain from spiritous liquors, but his assertion is contradicted by the testimony of Bacstrom. Vapour baths are resorted to as a remedy against scurvy, the coasts are covered with plants and shrubs, which are salutary in the same disease, and the fishermen are generally provided with a certain quantity of *moroschka*. The heated blood of the rein deer is given to invalids, an antidote which has been borrowed from the Samoyedes.

Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki.

Two other towns, Wologda and Oustioug-Weliki, may be shortly described. The first is peopled by 14,000 inhabitants, who are as industrious as any in the Russian empire; they have manufactories of silk, cloth and linen, porcelain, glass, crystal and mineral dye; many of the people are employed in dressing leather, and others are occupied in making paper, sealing wax, oil, tallow and turpentine. The industry of the ancient Novgorod is now transferred to Wologda; its commerce is very important, all the productions of the province, all the manufactures which have been enumerated are sent from it to Archangel and Siberia; whatever is exported from Petersburg to Perm, Wiatka or Siberia passes through the same place. The different

articles which are exported to the port of Archangel from the interior, are all conveyed by the Wologda, the Suchona and the Dwina. It is the mart of the Siberian furs, of the teas and nankeens of Kiachta, its merchants travel into Siberia, and have their agents in China. Oustioug-Weliki, a town of 12,000 souls, is peopled by a colony from Wologda, it is situated on the Suchona, and on the great road between Archangel and Siberia, consequently the merchandise destined for that country is brought to Oustioug from Wologda, Petersburg and Archangel. The inhabitants do not live solely by exporting goods, many of them make enamel and different kinds of jewellery, and there are soap, candle and tallow works in the town. The merchants of the same place retain the simplicity of ancient customs, brothers, nephews, and cousins reside together in the same establishment, some superintend the workmen, or sell the different goods, others travel to Petersburg, Tobolsk or Irkulsk, and are deputed with full powers from the common house. These travellers are called *gosti* or guests, and they enjoy certain privileges in the different places that they visit. Totma contains 3000 inhabitants, and carries on a trade with Siberia. The other towns are insignificant, but their topography may serve to illustrate some phenomena worthy of notice. Thus the vegetation of the lime ceases near Nikolsk, the larch is not seen beyond *Jarensk*, and the last nut tree flourishes in the neighbourhood of *Olischew*, about 58° 30′, north latitude. A solitary and sheltered oak grows near the convent of Preluk, at no great distance from Wologda. *Oustsysolsk*, a burgh where many fairs are held, is situated in a country of which the *pinus cembra* is almost the only plant, hence the climate is not widely different from that near the line of perpetual snow.* Timber is exported from Onega in the government of Archangel.

Manners of the inhabitants.

Other towns.

* Mémoires Statistiques sur Wologda, in the Nouvelles Ephémérides geogr. XII. p. 15. See Storch, Materialen, I. p. 305.

BOOK CVI.

Kholmogory, the ancient metropolis of the country on the Dwina, appears to be the same as the *Holmgard* of the Icelanders, it was once the capital of a Scandinavian state, it is built on an island or *holm* on the river. *Mezen* is the chief town of a very large department, part of which is called *Udoria*. The frontiers of *Iougoria* lie on the east of the Uralian mountains, and *Lucomoria* is a general name for the maritime plain of *Obdoria*, or the country near the mouths of the Obi. Many caverns are observed in the desert regions on the Petchora, and the natural entrances to most of them are cut or altered so as to admit of doors, a fact which seems to prove that they were at one time used for the dwellings of men. It is said that old caldrons and the remains of coarse household furniture, nay more, that human bones have been taken from some of them. According to the common tradition of the Samoyedes, the ancient inhabitants of their country were of gigantic size, and perished by the plague.* The popular notion coincides remarkably with the description of the Iotes in the Eddaic poems, for that people are frequently called *Iettes* or giants, and often compared or confounded with the *Rises*, *Thuses* and other barbarians of lofty stature and fierce manners. *Iotum-Heim* or the country of the Iotes is generally marked, as M. Schiæning has shown, on the east and north-east of Scandinavia. All the Iotes were supposed to reside in caverns, and each man, it is affirmed, had a *large caldron*. Their dialect was little different from others in Scandinavia, and their religious traditions were more ancient than the worship of Wodin. The name of *Thor* or *Thorum*, by which the Samoyedes designate the supreme being, is no proof against the hypothesis; for although it be allowed that the Iotes were the enemies of Thor, other branches of the Scandinavians, the conquerors and successors of that

Udoria, &c.

Iotun-Heim.

* Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

people, might have disseminated the religion of Wodin's son among the vassal tribes.

Samoyedes, their name.

The Samoyedes are *the men who eat each other;* such at least is the meaning of the Russian word, and it has the same signification in Polish. It is, indeed, a matter of wonder that such a name has been applied to an innocent race of men, who live on the flesh of their rein deer, and who at most deserve the epithet of *Syroiedzi* or eaters of raw food, a term by which they are occasionally styled in official documents. As it is vain to suppose the meaning of the word different, we must conclude that they were called Samoyedes or *anthropophagi* by the inhabitants of more southern countries, whose prejudices against certain tribes were by no means uncommon. The *Melanchlæni*, *Cimmerians* and the *Iotes* themselves may be cited by way of example; some were believed by the Greeks, and others by the Wodinian Scandinavians, to be inhospitable, fierce and addicted to bloodshed. The same erroneous notions concerning ancient tribes may have passed to their successors, and the harmless Samoyedes may have thus been classed among cannibals. It is now generally admitted that the Samoyedes form a distinct race, which is divided into several tribes, and scattered from the sources of the Ienissei to the Frozen ocean, and along the shores of that sea from the Anabara on the east, to the Mezen on the west.* The most southern tribe is that of the *Ourongkhai* or *Soyotes*, who are subject to the Chinese, and reside on the Saganian mountains. They are evidently the same as the *Orangheys* of Rubruquis, whom he commends for their dexterity in skating and pursuing their game on the ice. The continuation of the Samoyedan tribes is interrupted near the central banks of the Ienissei, but as many as inhabit Europe, call themselves *Ninetz* and *Chasowo*, two words, which signify men. They are divided into several branches, and the *Wanoitai* on the Petchora, the Ousa, the Korotaicha and the Kara, are the most numerous. The country on the east of the

Tribes of the Samoyedes.

* Klaproth, Asia Polyglotta.

BOOK CVI.

Petchora is called by the same people, the *Arka-Ira* or Great Land. Much uncertainty prevails concerning the number and subdivisions of the European Samoyedes.

Different animals. Produce of the country.

The principal wealth of the inhabitants consists in the number of their rein deer; some of them possess more than a thousand, and few have less than ten. The price of a rein deer varies from two to ten roubles. The hunters kill the animals that are found on the plains and the mountains, or bears, wolves, foxes, squirrels, ermines, martens and wild rein deer. The different birds that frequent the marshes, are wild geese, ducks, swans, the *larus parasiticus* and the *hæmatopus ostrologus* or oyster catcher. The fisheries are confined to the rivers, at least those on the sea afford a scanty supply. The most valuable fish are the *salmo-migratorius*, the *salmo neleuco*, the *cyprinus rutilus* and several kinds of shad and perch. The frost continues to the middle of May, and the rivers are only open two or three months in the year. The Petchora is blocked with ice before the end of October, and the Ousa is frozen by the beginning of September, still its banks are covered with firs, birch trees, alders, willows, sorbs and brushwood. The barberry, the *moroschka* or *chamœmorus* and the red whortleberry grow near Pustosersk. It follows from the above statement, which is attested by the natives themselves, that their polar country is susceptible of great improvement.*

Physical character.

The European Samoyedes are for the most part about the middle size, few of them are very tall or of *gigantic stature*. They may be distinguished by their flat visage, small eyes, and sunk nose, the last feature is nearly on a level with the upper jaw. To complete the picture, we may add a long mouth, thin lips, large ears, black and shining hair, which falls in plaits over the shoulders. They have no beards, and are for the most part of a swarthy complexion. The women are marriageable at ten

* Interrogatoire des Samoyèdes. See the Mémoires Mensuels de l'Académie de Pétersbourg, Janvier, Février, Mars, 1787.

years of age, and cease to bear children after thirty. Polygamy is permitted, but few men have more than two wives, all the girls are purchased, a hundred or sometimes a hundred and fifty rein deer are given for a bride. The fair sex do not enjoy much freedom, and though strictly watched by their husbands, they give them little cause of jealousy. The Samoyedes are a very dirty people, a man rarely washes himself, unless threatened with diseases arising from excessive filth. Scurvy, we have learnt with surprise, is not a common complaint, and many, it is said, are carried off by fevers. A Samoyedan cannot resist the temptation of ardent spirits, and death is often the consequence of intoxication. The blood of the rein deer is warmed, and considered an agreeable and wholesome beverage, the flesh of the same animal, and raw fish are their principal articles of food. Hunting or fishing is the sole occupation of the people, and from their great practice, they are swift runners and dexterous bowmen. It is owing to the same cause that these savages can see and hear much better than more civilized men; a good eye and a quick ear are indispensable to the hunter, who subsists on game.

Dwellings.

The tents of the Samoyedes are of a pyramidical form, they are made of the branches and bark of trees, and covered with rein deer skins. The women can take down, or erect a tent in a few hours. Every part of domestick economy, all the labours of the household, and other burdens are imposed on the weaker sex; their religion too subjects them to grievous and extraordinary purifications.

Superstition.

The Samoyedans believe in two beings that regulate the affairs of men; the good divinity is not adored, for he is ready to diffuse his blessings without hearing the prayers of his creatures, the wicked is never worshipped, because he cannot be made to relent by the lamentations of the wretched; the immortality of the soul is a sort of metempsychosis. Although their creed is so simple, the priests possess considerable authority; the *kedesnicks* and *sadibeis* hold communion with the evil spirit, and are con-

BOOK CVI.

sulted whenever the calamities of an individual remind him of a hellish power. The same people have no laws, custom supersedes in some measure their necessity; thus a man rarely marries more than one individual of the same family. The tribute of furs exacted by the Russians is willingly paid, and it is the only acknowledgment of submission claimed by the czar.

Government of Olonetz.

The government of Olonetz extends on the south to the latitude of Petersburg, and on the north to the White sea, thus it separates the province of Archangel from the circle of Kola or Lapland. The *Olonetz hills* are formed by granite rocks from 300 to 500 feet in height; they are the prominent parts of a granite ridge, which occupies apparently all the space between the White sea and the gulfs on the Baltic. The number of lakes in the government is supposed to be 1998, and the rocks by which the water is precipitated into the lakes Onega, Ladoga and the White sea, are all composed of granite. The same substance is covered with masses of trap, ophites and schistus. The gold veins of Woitz, which were first observed by a peasant, extend on a bed of gneiss that forms one of the superincumbent strata; no advantage is now derived from the discovery, although the gold is of a very bright colour, and contains comparatively little alloy. Specimens of copper ore have been collected in many parts of the country, but it exists nowhere in sufficient abundance to indemnify the labour of working it. Iron is more productive, and the quantity obtained annually from the government exceeds 200,000 *pouds*. Mineralogists have examined in an island on the lake of *Puch*, a stratum of schistus, which is impregnated with vitriol, and, from its decomposed state, not unlike chalk. Marble is exported to Petersburg from the quarries of Olonetz. The oak and the beech succeed rarely, but the fir and the larch grow to the height of a hundred feet in the circle of Kargapol.

Olonetz Hills.

Gold.

Towns.

Petrosavodsk, the metropolis of the government, contains 3000 inhabitants, many of whom labour in the iron works and imperial foundries. *Kargapol*, ano-

ther small town possesses a flourishing trade, and *Olonetz* is not unworthy of notice, for it was there that Peter the Great first attempted to build a ship of war. The circle of *Powenetz* is noted for its good hemp, and many of its inhabitants are *Roscolniki* or Russians of the ancient Greek church. The monks in the different convents appear with long beards, and that appendage of which they boast, is said to be essential to their faith. Several large rivers flow in the department of eastern Kemi towards the western coast of the White sea; their water is colored by the *sphagnum palustre* and other plants, and dashed in golden foam from the summits of steep granite rocks. The Laplander and his rein deer are seen in many extensive tracts, on which the trees are never lofty, and the crops always uncertain. Although under the same parellel as Ostrobothnia, the climate is as severe as in central Lapland. The population of the government consists chiefly of Carelian Finns, their language is mixed with the Russian, and a barbarous and irregular dialect is thus produced.*

Island of Solowetskoy.

A town and a convent have been built on the island of *Solowetskoy*, which is situated on the White sea, and belongs to the government of Archangel. The convent was visited by many pilgrims, and the town sustained a siege during four years against a body of Strelitzans. Large tablets of Muscovy talc are sent from the island to different parts of the empire.

Russian Lapland.

The circle of Kola and the northern part of eastern Kemi made up at one time Russian Lapland; but by later treaties, two extensive districts, all the *Lapmark* of western Kemi, and the greater part of the *Lapmark* of Torneo, have been ceded to Russia. Thus nearly two-thirds of the regions peopled by Laplanders are within the dominions of the emperor. We shall therefore give in this part of our work some account of that singular people and the coun-

* Campenhausen's Statistical and Geographical Essays. Storch's Journey round the lakes Ladoga and Onega, Materialim, I. p. 211.

BOOK CVI.

Mountains.

try they inhabit. Lapland is not intersected by Alps or very high mountains, as has been affirmed by a German geographer.* The whole region from Nordland onwards, is a table land crowned only on its western frontier with a mountainous chain that forms the extremity of the Scandinavian Alps, and descends from Sulitielma, of which the elevation is 6000 feet, to the heights of Norwegian Finmark, that are about 3600 on the continental coast, and nearly 4000 on some islands. The interior is intersected by ravines and valleys; the elevation of the highest plains may be about fifteen or sixteen hundred feet, but they uniformly descend towards the east and the south. The rocks and hills that rise from the table land are not lofty; they vary to the east of 18° longitude, from five to six hundred feet above their base, or from 2000 to 2400 above the level of the sea. These hills do not form a continuous chain, but a number of isolated groups, and at twenty leagues to the south of them, near the base of mount *Salvasvado*, at the level of 1300 feet, the streams and rivers separate in different directions between the north sea and the Bothnian gulf, and between the gulfs of Alten and Torneo.† We conclude from the information afforded us by travellers, that the central ridge descends without interruption to the entrance of the White sea, and instead of a continuous chain, that part of the country consists of extensive marshes and sandy plains studded with rocks varying from 300 to 400 feet in height. The hills on the higher part of the table land are composed of granite and gneiss; such at least were those examined by M. de Buch on the banks of the Muonio. Silver is found on the *Three islands*, and on the *Bear's island*, near the eastern extremity of Russian Lapland, but their component parts are in other respects the same. M. de Buch observed during his excursion towards the gulf of Both-

* Ruhs, Sweden, p. 124.

† Section from Altengaard to Torneo. See the *Voyages en Laponie* by the Baron de Buch.

nia, a succession of calcareous and schistous rocks. The same substances abound in the country between the last gulf and that of Kandala; and although the land is furrowed with ravines, its elevation is inconsiderable. The whole region rests probably on a base of red *decomposable* granite, or as it is generally called by the natives, *rapakivi*.*

Metal.

Metal is found in abundance throughout the greater part of western Lapland, and there are whole mountains of rich iron ore in the provinces still attached to Sweden. Traces of copper and silver have been discovered, but the indications disappear gradually as we approach the White sea. The marshy lands are impregnated with iron, but the want of hands, the scarcity of timber, and the great difficulty of conveying goods are insurmountable obstacles against working mines in the inland and eastern parts of the country. The natives rejoice that these treasures are suffered to remain in the earth, their rulers might otherwise compel them to labour; at all events, it is certain that the Laplander, who showed rich mines and metallic veins to the Russians, was considered a traitor by his countrymen. Rock crystal is a very common mineral, and the inhabitants sell it sometimes for amethysts and topazes.†

Rivers and lakes.

The *Alten* or *Alata*, which traverses by a series of waterfalls the mountains in Finmark, is included in Norway, and the *Torneo* and *Muonio* mark the limits of Sweden. The Bothnian Kemi flows in the Russian provinces, and of all its imposing and terrific cataracts, the *Taival Koski*

* Wahlenberg, Topographie de la Laponie de Kemi. De Buch, Voyage, II. p. 233-277. We have collected the different words by which the Laplanders denote mountains, rivers and lakes. *Wara*, a mountain, *Tuoddar*, a mountainous chain covered with snow. *Kaisse*, an isolated summit. *Iagna* or *Iegna*, a glacier. *Tierno*, a well-wooded mountain. *Meto*, a round hill. *Korr*, a peak. *Pakte*, a rock. *Pello*, a plain. *Trœsk*, a lake covered with *sphagnum* and other plants. *Jœrfri*, a lake. *Jaure*, a marsh. *Faule*, a lake through which a river passes. *Ioki* or *Iok*, a river.

† Hermelin, Essai d'une histoire minérale de la Laponie.

BOOK CVI.

or *the fall of the heavens*, is the only one which the adventurous boatmen never attempt to cross. The *Tama*, which abounds in excellent salmon, forms to a certain extent the boundary between Norway and Russia, and surrounds on the east the maritime chain of Finmark. Small islands and rocks are scattered on the *Passe* or *holy stream*, the outlet of the great lake *Enara*. The *Tuloma* falls from a great height, before it enters the Russian town of Kola, but the course of the *Ponoi*, which waters all the eastern declivities in the same circle, is not accurately known. The large lake of *Imandra* is discharged into the gulf of Kandala, and its level is 400 feet above the sea.

Appearance of the country.

The foaming cataract, the lofty precipice, islands covered with pines, and rugged rocks of a thousand varied forms seldom attract travellers to a bleak and desert country. The stranger is rarely exposed to the rays of a midnight sun, and as rarely reposes on the white elastic moss which grows along the banks of solitary rivers near the silent shades of rocks and forests. The rich Laplander does not often visit the plains, his rein deer quench their thirst at the springs and mountain streams; but the poor man repairs to the rivers, casts his nets across them during the day, and at night (when there are nights in Lapland) he kindles his pine torch, and spears the fish that are attracted by the light to the surface of the water. Waterfalls, lakes, rivers and rocks are held sacred by the superstitious natives; and the operations of nature are supposed to be very mysterious in a country where her empire is not disputed by the art of man. We shall afterwards return to the same subject, but it may be remarked at present that the industrious and hardy Finns or *Quænes*, a flourishing colony, and far more numerous than the Laplanders, try to open communications between different provinces, their boats descend many of the torrents, and trees cut in the most remote forests are borne down precipitous rocks. The simple but clean cottages of the laborious Swedes are situated near the base of

the cataracts, or on the lowest declivities of the high country; but the crops which these settlers have introduced, are often destroyed by the inclemency of the seasons. The traveller, who leaves the country of wandering tribes, hunters and fishers, is suddenly surprised by the appearance of civilization. Smoke rises from the forges, the anvil resounds to the stroke of the hammer, the grating noise of saw-mills assails the ear, and the novel sight of clocks and steeples announces the religion of Christians. Such is the appearance of Torneo, at present a Russian town. But on the side of the White Sea, almost the whole country is one continued desert; some Russian hamlets, some white cabbage gardens, and a few fur storehouses near the mouths of solitary rivers, are the only marks of human industry.

Climate.

Lapland was the coldest country visited in past times by the travellers in western Europe, and its climate has thus obtained an unfortunate celebrity; still it is milder than that of any other region on the same parallel. Let it be compared for instance with the country of the Samoyedes, or the coasts of Siberia, which, though two or three degrees to the south, are never open until the end of July, while the coasts of Norwegian Lapland or Finmark are freed from ice in the month of May. An open, and ever-agitated sea is one great cause of the comparatively mild temperature on the northern coast of Norwegian Lapland, but the dense and humid mists must be attributed to the same cause, and it is only near the interior of gulfs sheltered from maritime winds, or in districts at the elevation of seven or eight hundred feet, that the culture of grain succeeds, and that all the force of the heat accumulated in a day which lasts two months, is concentrated.* The maritime climate is much colder on the other side of cape North, and the harbours on the coast of eastern Lapland are sometimes blocked in the middle of June.

Maritime region.

* Other causes are enumerated in the article Norway.

BOOK CVI.

Climate of the central ridge.

The central ridge is more habitable than any other polar region in the same latitudes, its climate too has been better observed. Rye and barley are sown, ripened and reaped within the space of sixty-six days, but during the whole of that time there is no night. The short summer is enlivened by the songs of birds, the earth is in some places covered with flowers, but the coolness of evening is never felt, and the light is never succeeded by darkness. The summer may be contrasted with a rigorous winter, that continues eight months in the year; the cold is excessive, and mercury freezes frequently in the open air. The chilling blast penetrates the wretched huts of the Laplanders, but the provident *Quænes* are sheltered in their *pærrtes* or *oven-cottages*. The settlers admit that a terrestrial paradise is not to be found in Lapland, but the cold is perhaps more intense at Archangel than at Enontekis, and strangers suffer less inconvenience from the temperature of the central ridge, than from boisterous winds, and the chaotic confusion occasioned by the thawing of the wide rivers which intersect the plains.

Vegetation.

The vegetation of Norwegian and Swedish Lapland has been carefully examined by Wahlenberg and De Buch, and it is to be regretted that similar observations have never been made in the ancient Russian provinces. But as a great part of the Swedish territory has been added to the Russian, it may be as well to mention some of the facts stated by these able botanists. M. Wahlenberg distinguishes the following zones. First, *the lower region of the forests*, in which the fir, the *trifolium pratense*, the *convallaria majalis*, and the *nymphæa alba* flourish; it rises from the level of the sea to the height of 500 feet. Second, The *higher region of the forests*, from 500 to 800 feet, the fir still succeeds, but the other plants disappear. Third, The region of pines from 800 to 1200 feet, the fir is rarely if ever seen. Fourth, The *subalpine region* from 1200 to 1800 feet, the coniferous trees do not grow, they give place to the birch. Fifth, The *alpine region* or the country of the dwarf birch from 1800 to

2500 feet. Sixth, The higher alpine or the region of perpetual snow from 2500 to 3300 feet. These divisions are only applicable to the southern declivities of Lapland. M. de Buch has marked the vegetable scale in Norwegian Lapland or Finmark, the most northern country in Europe. The following table is intended for 70° north latitude. Limit of the red pines, 730 feet; of the birch, 1483; of the *vaccinium myrtillus*, 1908; of the dwarf birch, 2576; of the *salix myrsinites*, 2908; of the *salix lanata*, 3100; and of perpetual snow, 3300.

Plants are not so profusely scattered in the country on the east of the Tana and the Kemi; but as the level is lower, there is probably no limit to the growth of the pine, much less to that of the birch. It is stated by Wahlenberg that not only the birch, but the pine and the fir flourish throughout the marshy plains near *Iwala-Iocki* in the parish of *Enara*, where the waters diverge towards the Frozen ocean and the Bothnian sea. Thus the zones of all these trees are confounded, or pass into each other.

Flora Laponica.

Most plants observed in the temperate regions of Europe are not common to the high latitudes of Lapland, and the number of species which make up the *Flora Laponica* is inconsiderable. We do not maintain that the few plants supposed to belong exclusively to Lapland, in other words that the *rubus arcticus*, the *salix laponica*, the *ranunculus lap. et hyperboreus*, the *diapensia lap.* the *andromeda cærulea*, the *pedicularis lap.* the *orchis hyperborea* and others may not be found at a future period in different parts of the globe. Although the species are few in number, they abound in individuals, and the vegetation of Lapland is far superior to that of the other countries round the Frozen ocean. The lofty plains and rocks higher than 1000 feet, are covered with mosses and lichens. The rein deer's lichen is of a bright yellow colour, but as it dries or withers, it becomes as white as snow; indeed the illusion could hardly be discovered, were it not for the verdant bushes and tufted trees which interrupt the uniformity. The

Mosses.

Rein deer's lichen.

BOOK CVI.

same plant thrives better near the forests of fir than in the neighbourhood of the birch, and the Laplanders themselves are well aware that their lands might be more productive if their birch woods were destroyed. A plain surrounded by rocks, and covered with the rein deer's moss forms a Laplandic meadow. The oxen are fattened on this winter fodder, and the inhabitants extract from the lichen a sort of flour, which, if its taste be not very agreeable, is at least nutritive and wholesome. The Laplanders learnt from the instinctive sagacity of the bear, the use of the *muscus polytrichum* or bear's moss. Wherever it grows, every other kind of vegetation decays, but it furnishes rich pastures, and is applied to different purposes. Thus the moss and the coherent tissue of its roots are dug from the ground, the particles of earth are disengaged, and it is made into beds and matrosses, which almost all travellers prefer to any in the civilized countries of Europe. Plants useful in dying are common in the same country, and if the people were more industrious, bright colours might be extracted from the different lichens which are found in Lapland. The rocky country is the region of the *cryptogamia*, and the traveller observes on leaving it the sharp leaves of the *carex*, some of which are collected and dried in summer, and the cloaks or pelisses of the Laplanders are lined with them. The *rubus chamœmorus* and the *vaccinium myrtillus* grow near the extensive marshes, but few reeds or aquatic plants rise from the gelid waters of the lakes and rivers. The best pastures in Lapland are covered with Alpine herbage. The root of the *angelica*, and the stem of the *fonchus* are used as food, and of all the grains, barley is the one which thrives best, but the potato yields a surer harvest, and if its culture were general it might afford sufficient sustenance for all the inhabitants. If the cultivation of the cabbage and turnip has been attended with success, it must be attributed to the persevering industry of the Russian and Finnic peasants in Kola and Ponoi. But in this region the fruit-bearing shrubs

Bear's moss.

Pastures.

are the *nobles* of the vegetable kingdom.* The berries of the *rubus arcticus*, although of a delicate flavour, are perhaps surpassed by those of the *rubus chamœmorus*, which cover an extent of about 2400 square miles, and are doubly valuable from their healing virtue. The *vaccinium oxycoccus* and similar species arrive at perfection in a country from which most fruits appear to be banished.

Animals, the rein deer.

None of the quadrupeds in Lapland are so useful to man as the rein deer, indeed were it not for that animal, the life of the polar tribes must have been most wretched. It is the stag, the horse and the cow of these countries, its milk is of so rich a quality that it must be diluted in water, its flesh is far superior to that of the sheep, it is so hardy as to be almost insensible to cold, it is so easily maintained that it finds its food among the snowy wastes of the north. But the possession of this valuable animal is very uncertain; the wandering herds are sometimes dispersed in the woods, they disregard the voice of the shepherd, and his dogs cannot always collect them. They are not easily milked, and yield a very small quantity at a time. Thus to have abundance of milk and meat, the Laplander must have a numerous flock and extensive pastures, for the rein deer does not thrive in confinement, it loves to roam at large; it seeks in one season the freshness of the mountain air, and in another a place of shelter against the glacial winds. To speak strictly, the rein deer belongs only to the central ridge of Lapland, it does not thrive in summer on the coast of the Bothnian gulf, or in winter on the hazy islands of Finmark. The horse is terrified for the rein deer, and runs away at its approach, the cow evinces still greater horror, it cannot be driven into any place, where their recent footmarks are impressed.† If it be recollected that a crackling noise from the bones of the leg announces at a distance the coming of the rein deer, an effect that can hardly be imputed to any other cause than a powerful

Electricity of the rein deer.

* The lilies, according to Linnæus, were the nobles of nature.

† This popular opinion has been confirmed by the learned De Buch.

BOOK CVI.

electricity which is sometimes detected on the skin, it may be natural to suppose that the aversion of other quadrupeds towards an animal graceful in its motions and symmetrical in its proportions proceeds only from an instinctive knowledge of its electrical qualities. The same fact may perhaps enable us to account for some of the diseases to which the rein deer is subject, and from which other quadrupeds are exempt; certain it is that in a few days the patriarchal wealth of the richest and most fortunate Laplander is sometimes destroyed. Then the shepherd king descends from his mountains to the banks of rivers, depends for a precarious subsistence on the produce of his nets, and drags out a wretched existence among tribes of fishers, whom he formerly despised. The greatest danger to which the shepherds are exposed, are general and sudden thaws followed by as sudden frosts. The snow is thus covered with a crust of ice, which the rein deer cannot penetrate, and consequently cannot open a passage to the lichens necessary for its existence. Famine then rages, and if it were not of short duration, all the animals might perish. The rein deer is harnessed to a sledge, which it draws during seven or eight hours with extraordinary rapidity, but at the end of that time, it falls down from exhaustion. The Laplander calls these animals by as many names as the Arab gives his horse; the male is generally termed *potso* and the female *vaiea*.

Other animals.

The Swedish, Norwegian, and Russian peasants introduced horses, oxen and sheep into Lapland; the last have succeeded. The oxen lose their horns and the cows become white. Few elks frequent the forests, and the beaver is seldom seen on the rivers; but the bear, the glutton, the wolf and other carniverous animals pursue the squirrels, martens, hares, and the curious lemming-rats, which, it is said, always advance in straight lines from north to south, and are not diverted from their course by lakes or rivers, but try to cross them, although thousands are drowned in the attempt. If this opinion admitted by naturalists be correct, the followers of Pythagoras may conclude that the

souls of metaphysicians and geometers inhabit the bodies of rats. BOOK CVI.

Birds.

The forests, shrubs and brushwood in the solitary regions of Lapland afford shelter to birds of passage, which arrive in flocks every summer. The shores of some islands are almost covered with the eggs of aquatic fowl, and the interior abounds in different species of game, the grouse, the white partridge and the snow hen. The *motacilla sueccia* is the nightingale of Lapland, and it is called from its melodious notes the *satakielinen* or "the bird of a hundred tunes." The chantress of the desert feeds on the insects of Lapland, its neck is adorned with an azure plumage, and it never lives any length of time in more temperate regions. The rivers are stored with salmon and a variety of fish, but, about a month in the year from the fourteenth of July to the fourteenth of August, insects as numerous as in the countries on the torrid zone torment the traveller and the rein deer; a day is the common period of their existence, and the soil is enriched by innumerable heaps of their dead bodies.

The productions of Lapland have been minutely observed by such men as Linnæus, De Buch and Wahlenberg, we have been induced to mention them more fully on that account, and because the physical geography of the same region is connected with that of all the countries on the east of the White Sea, which have hitherto been only visited by Russian travellers. We shall for the same reason examine without prejudice the most authentic narratives concerning the Laplanders themselves, a people who are generally considered a type of all the polar wandering tribes.

Name.

The Laplanders call themselves *Sabine* and *Same*, to that word the termination *lads* or *lain*, which signifies people or inhabitants, is generally added. They were first denominated Finns by the Scandinavian nations, but Saxo called them *Lappes* in the twelfth century, and they are always styled *Lepori* in the Russian annals, a name, which is probably derived from some obsolete Finnic word.

BOOK CVI.

Appearance.

A Laplander may be known by his short stature, generally from four and a half to five feet, his large visage, hollow cheeks, sharp chin, thin beard, dark and coarse hair, and sallow complexion. A higher stature, a whiter skin and hair of a different colour are exceptions to the common character, or proofs of a mixture with other tribes. Hardened by his rude climate, the Laplander is strong and active; a young man can outstrip on his skates the fox and the wolf, the rigid bow yields to his nervous arm, and in his old age he carries heavy burdens, or swims across rivers. But no instances of great longevity can be cited; on the contrary, few of them live longer than fifty or sixty years, and although they are very cleanly in their habits, many suffer much from disease. They are at once passionate and timid, their choler may be easily excited, but their fear prompts them to dissemble or suppress it. Every stranger is considered a spy, whose object is to discover their wealth, that a heavier impost may be exacted. Paper money was attempted without success to be introduced amongst them; fathers then concealed their gold and silver in the cavities of rocks, and forgot sometimes to tell their children where the wealth was deposited. This distrust is accompanied with great avarice and selfishness, he who has any thing to sell, always tries to cheat the purchaser, and the cunning Russian is often the dupe of the Laplander. Without pity and without compassion, they rarely assist the poor or wretched; without honour, they frequently acquire wealth by dishonest means. Their marriages are contracts of sale, and, in many instances, ill adapted to dispel the tedium of a solitary life. Relatives and kindred entertain each other, yet their hospitality is not disinterested, and the brandy bottle is the only talisman by which a stranger can be admitted into the hut or tent of a Laplander.

Character.

It ought, on the other hand, to be remarked that the nation has been long degraded by a superstitious worship, in which nothing like morality was ever enjoined, and the people, independently of that cause, have

not been improved by their intercourse with rude sailors and avaricious traders. It is not much more than thirty years since paganism was ostensibly abolished. Spiritous liquor may still be conveyed into the country with too much facility. The fishermen spend in this way the half of their income, and shepherds repair to spirit shops, and drink together a whole day until they are stretched on the ground in the sleep of drunkenness, from which they often pass into that of death.

Life of the rein deer shepherds.

The Laplanders are divided into two classes, and the shepherds are superior in many respects to the fishermen. The care of tending the flocks devolves on all the members of the family, who have separate dogs that obey only the voice of their master. The rein deer are marked in different ways on the ear, such as give milk or nourish young, are thus distinguished from others that draw the sledge, or are fattening for the butcher. A good shepherd can observe by glancing on his numerous flock, if any be amissing. It is a fine sight to see a whole family and a thousand rein deer returning to the fold, and the young girls milking the rein deer, while the boys hold them by ropes bound round the head. The pastures are quickly consumed, and the Laplanders are frequently obliged to migrate. Changes of this sort are sometimes indispensable almost every month in winter. The shepherds live in tents, which consist of stakes placed in the form of a pyramid, and covered with thick and coarse cloth. The smoke escapes from an aperture in the top, and pots and kettles are suspended over the fire from chains attached to the same opening. Rein deer skins stretched on branches of birch trees are, during the day, the seats of about twenty individuals, and at night the beds of the same number. It is there that the Laplanders seated on their heels after the manner of eastern nations, spend in the beatitude of idleness all the moments they can spare from their pastoral labour. It is there that fathers, mothers, children, servants, dogs and travellers, if there are any, sleep. The tent or *kota* is encompas-

Tents.

BOOK CVI.

sed with stakes, the different provisions are kept in boxes attached to them, and chests are ranged on the inside round the cloth or covering, but these precautions are often unavailing against the impetuosity of the blast.

Manner of travelling, sledges.

The sledge of a Laplander is not unlike a small *wherry*, and the person within it must keep himself in equilibrium. The rein deer draws from the head, and performs frequently a journey of fifty or sixty miles, but it sometimes stops from want of wind, or quits its direction in quest of moss, and at the end of three days the best of them are unfit for service. A family of Laplanders travel in a number of sledges, which are divided into *raids* or lines, the father, the mother and each child guide a rein deer. Different articles of trade are transported by the poorest inhabitants in the same manner. The Laplander has recourse to his snow shoes in winter, and travels or pursues his game on the ice with much boldness and extraordinary rapidity. In summer he often walks and loads his rein deer with his merchandise; he makes use too of a frail bark, which is moved on wheels from lake to lake, and as many of the lakes are situated near each other, this is the best method of travelling in several parts of the ridge. A journey into the interior in the midst of summer, during a perpetual day, is attended with much inconvenience; the transport of goods is then more difficult, the rivers are so many barriers, the insects are troublesome, the heat is oppressive, and the forests are occasionally on fire. Linnæus mentions one of these fires produced by lightning. "The devastation extended to the distance of several Swedish miles.* The part which I crossed was not less than three quarters of a mile, all the wood was consumed, in other places the trees were still burning. The wind rose suddenly, the flames were rekindled, and a noise was heard in the half-consumed forest, like the shock of two conflicting armies. It was fortunate that my companions and myself

Burning of the forests.

* A Swedish mile is equal to 4 + 1-6 English miles.

were not crushed by the trees that fell on every side around us."*

Dress.

The Laplanders cover themselves with cloaks of the rein deer's skin, their pantaloons and boots are made of the same substance, which is dressed in different ways according to the seasons. The women put on cloth trowsers in winter, but they wear a lighter sort during the short summers. The same persons are the only tailors in the country, and they spare no pains in adorning themselves. Their dress is showy and somewhat like that of savages; the shape of the bonnet varies in different districts, but it is everywhere covered with tufts of tin thread. A girdle thickly studded with tin or silver ornaments, is a part of the costume, and a purse hangs from it, which contains tobacco, needles, scissors, a knife, silver and tin chains; their numerous rings too are generally kept in it. It appears from the *Sagas*, that the ancient Finns manufactured several articles, which they now purchase; even the goddesses of the Scandinavian Asgard were indebted for their jewels to the magical art of the *dwarfs* in Finmark. The modern Laplanders make very fine thread from the nerves and entrails of rein deer, strong cord from roots, horn spoons and snuff boxes, that are prized in Sweden, and the wooden figures, which they carve on some of the sledges, might perhaps merit the attention of antiquaries. The shepherds live well, and the stranger is sometimes invited to partake of good soup, an excellent roast, bear's ham and a dish of *kappatialme*, or rich cream and delicate conserves. A cheese made from the milk of the rein deer is at least equal, if not superior to any other, but the butter is so bad as to be hardly eatable. The care of the kitchen has, since the introduction of Christianity, been committed to the women, who were formerly supposed to be polluted and unworthy of the office.

Industry.

The life of the fishermen is very different from that of the shepherds; the former have associated so much with

* Lachesis Laponica.

BOOK CVI.

the *Finno-Quænes*, that they have forgotten their original dialect, and are likely, ere long, to become a wholly distinct tribe from the real Laplanders. Their wooden and clay cottages are built near the fishing stations on the banks of rivers, their boats are constructed of light planks bound together with cordage made of roots; but if we judge from the nets that are stretched across the streams to impede the salmon, or from the cod hooks that are used in the gulfs, their knowledge of the arts must be very imperfect. Provisions are often exhausted in winter, and many are then reduced to live on the ground bark of the pine tree, kneaded with rein deer's lard. It is affirmed, that all the women in Finmark manufacture different woollen goods, but much accurate information has not hitherto been obtained concerning the fishing tribes on the coasts of the Frozen and White Sea.

Feasts, songs.

The Laplanders assemble occasionally at feasts, and seldom depart before the whole repast is consumed. The *puolem-vine*, or brandy brought from Flensborg, circulates freely, and mirth is evinced in noisy loquacity. All the guests thunder the wild discord of their *jolias* or national songs, and the amusement is sometimes varied by cards, which are made from the bark of trees, and coloured with the blood of the rein deer. Hundreds meet at marriage feasts, and remain perhaps longer than the bride or bridegroom would wish. Children are brought up without much trouble; as soon as a son is born, several rein deer are set apart for him, these are his property, and he receives afterwards his share in the succession.

Diseases, medicine.

The study of the diseases to which savages are subject, and of the remedies which they employ, leads often to unexpected results. Thus the *oullem* or colick occasioned by the vapid and heated water of lakes and marshes, could hardly be supposed a disease of polar countries, but it is not uncommon in Lapland, and the specific employed against it, is a sort of fungus that grows on birch trees; small fragments are set on fire, applied to the part affected, and allowed to burn slowly.

Languages.

The language of the Laplanders is a Finlandic dialect, but it contains so many words which are obsolete or foreign to the mother tongue, that the inhabitants of the two nations require an interpreter to explain their meaning. The individuals of different tribes among the Laplanders themselves, cannot understand each other without much difficulty. It follows from these facts that the grammars and vocabularies published by the Danish and Swedish missionaries may throw some light on the general character of the language, and the identity or difference between several vocables. The numerous cases, the varied terminations of nouns and compound verbs, the method of expressing pronouns by *affixa* joined to verbs, and lastly, the negative conjugations are characteristics equally applicable to the languages of Finland, Esthonia and Lapland. The last is in some respects still poorer than the other two, thus there are five words for snow, seven or eight for a mountain, but honesty, virtue and conscience must be expressed by a periphrasis.* The Laponic has been mixed, perhaps still more than the other Finnic tongues, with the German and Scandinavian, which were spoken by the conquerors, who were too often the tyrants of the Finnic race.† It is remarkable that some old Hungarian roots are to be found in the same

* Leem's Grammatica Laponica, Copenhagnen, 1748 (dialect of Porsanger.) Idem, De Laponibus Finmarchiæ, eorumque lingua, 1767. Ganander's Grammatica Laponica, 1743 (dialect of Kemi.) *Hœgstrœm's* Description of Swedish Lapland, p. 69–86 (dialect of the mountains and the north-west.) Lexicon Laponicum by *Lindhal* and *Oehrling*.

† Klaproth found *Germanic* words in the Finnic dialects. The proportion out of a number amounting to two hundred and twenty, was as one to twenty; had the same philologist sought Scandinavian words, he might have found twice as many. Thus *Gambel*, old, corresponds with *gammel*. *Skautia*, a beard, with *skuti*, prominent in Icelandic. *Wœlia*, a brother, with *fœlleds*, common in Danish, *fellow*, a Danish and English word, and *Velaa*, a brother in Albanian. *Kos*, a cow, with *ko*. *Nuor*, young, with *noor* an infant in Danish. *Kerasuat*, love, with *kier-lighed* in Danish, and perhaps *karitas* in Latin. *Rokohem*, a mist, with *raukur*, darkness in Icelandic. *Loma*, shelter, with *lummig*, sheltered in Swedish, &c. &c.

BOOK CVI.

dialect and not in the others connected with it.* It has been inferred from that fact, and from a resemblance between the Woguls and other *Iougorian* tribes, that the Laplanders are the descendants of a Hunnic mixed with a Finnic people, or perhaps a distinct branch of the great Finno-Hunnic race, whose country, according to the fabulous history of Scandinavia, was the same as the one inhabited by the Laplanders, and included also Iemtia, Dalecarlia, Osterdal and Wermeland. It is certain that the principal roots and derivatives in the Laponic bear less affinity with those in the languages of Upper Asia, than any other Finnic dialect. It is perhaps a monument of the barbarous tongues spoken by the primitive tribes of eastern Europe, and its origin is lost in that obscure but interesting period, in which our continent, like Africa and America in later times, was overrun in every direction by wandering tribes.

Superstition of the Laplanders.

Many instances of human weakness might be collected from the superstition of the Laplanders—an universal idolatry in which the elements were typified, and a polytheism, by which every object in nature was changed into a god, formed the basis of their worship, which, it is true, has often been misrepresented by merchants and even by injudicious missionaries. One ludicrous error may be mentioned, the Laplanders, it is asserted, adore several idols that are termed *Stor-iun-kare* or, by interpretation, young noblemen and men of fashion, for such is the double meaning of that Norwegian word. The supposed resemblance between the Scandinavian Thor and the Laponic Tiermes may have originated from the confusion of tribes, or from their connexion with strangers. At all events, the most valuable information on the subject is contained in a work which has not been rightly understood by the German writers.†

* See Sainovicz and Klaproth. We shall mention one example, *vagy* a valley corresponds with volgy a valley in Hungarian.

† Iessen on the Heathenism of the Norwegian Laplanders. See the continuation of Leem's Description of Finmark.

BOOK CVI.

Names of the gods.

Radien-Athsie, the creator of the universe, and *Radien-Kiedde*, his son, who governed in the name of his father, reigned in the highest heavens. These divinities soared in the *werald* or ethereal space, interfered seldom in the affairs of mortals, and were almost unknown except to the *Noaiadas* or men above the skies.* We pass to the powers in the visible heaven, *Baiwe* the goddess of the sun had under her command three inferior genii, that ruled on Friday, Saturday and Sunday. The air was the residence of an immense number of deities; they governed the elements, and were divided into two families. The one branch was sprung from *Joumala* or the good principle, that dwelt both in the clouds and in the water. The *Seites* were the offspring of *Perkal*, the infernal king, who assisted the wizards and all the enemies of humanity. The Swedish writers might have committed fewer errors had they always attended to the above distinction,† which does not, however, obviate every difficulty. On the contrary, there are many that it is impossible to explain, because the signification attached to the names of the different divinities in different districts is now unknown. *Hora-Galles* is perhaps the same as *Tiermes* and *Toraturos;* he darts the thunder, breaks the rocks, and overwhelms the magicians with his double hammer. The same power presides over the seasons, the fruits of the earth, and the produce of the chase; but according to some traditions he was originally a mischievous genius, descended from Perkal, and afterwards educated and sanctified by Joumala.‡ *Ayeke* or the aged is his surname, and his seven-coloured bow shines in the heavens. *Biag-Olmai*, the lord of the winds and tempests, and *Lieb-Olmai*, the god of hunters, appeared often in human forms and wandered on the holy mountains.§ The *Saiwos* or the wicked spirits received in

Two families of gods.

* Werald is a Scandinavian word, hence the English word world. *Kettæ* signifies second in Hungarian, Wogul and Ostiake. Noaiad appears to be of Samoyedan origin, from *noa* and *nob*, the heavens.

† Scheffer, Lap. 61, 91, 92, 96. Hægstrom's Lapland, 195, 196.

‡ Torner, De origine Fennorum.

§ Olma signifies a man.

BOOK CVI.

caverns the souls of bad men, or of all those that were not invited by *Radien-Athsie* to the higher heavens. The condemned were brought before *Jabme-Akko*,* the mother of the dead, who delivered the most guilty to frightful torments, which were inflicted on them by *Rota*, a hellish fiend, whose name was all that he possessed in common with one of the Wodinian Valkyrias.

Worship.

Such was the mythology of the Laplanders. We have given an account derived from scattered fragments, the system itself no longer exists. Whatever may be the worship of wandering barbarians, the advantages expected by their religious lawgivers are rarely if ever realized. Good and bad genii, whose power was exerted for the benefit or destruction of man, have been the objects of Laponic devotion since their country was first visited by travellers. *Tiermes*, the protector of vivifying nature, was loved and adored in the cottage and the tent, the great Seite, the chief evil spirit was worshipped and feared in solitary forests or on almost inaccessible rocks, and *Baiwe*, the goddess of the sun, had her sacred table near the huts. Sacrifices of male and fully grown rein deer were offered to Tiermes, the same victims together with dogs, cats and poultry, bled to avert the wrath of the Seite, but the goddess of light accepted only the offerings of young and female rein deer, and while the altars of the two former divinities were adorned with branching horns, the bones of her victims were placed in a circle round the sacred table. No images were erected in honour of *Baiwe*, but that of Tiermes was made of wood, and changed every year. It was merely the trunk of a birch tree, part of which was rudely emblematic of the head; a hammer and a flint, the symbols of the god, lay near the clumsy statue. Seite had a stone for his idol, and, according to the fancy of the worshippers, the figure of a man, a quadruped or a bird was cut on it; but a stone that had been irregularly hollowed by the water of a ca-

Idols.

* *Akko*, a mother, corresponds with *ank* in Samoyedan.

taract, was chosen in preference to every other. Some ancient idols are still to be seen in the island of *Darra*, which is situated near the edge of the great lake Torneo; although the place is of dangerous access, it was often stained with the blood of victims. The priests determined every year to which of the three powers the great sacrifice should be offered. The magical ring was made to revolve on a drum, and if it fell opposite an idol, the question was settled; but if all the gods refused the victims, the worshippers predicted some dire disaster.

Holy places.

The holy ground in ancient Lapland might have formed an extensive district. The adjectives *passe* or sacred and *ayeka* or divine are still added to the names of a great many places. The picturesque banks of a lake, the rock which projected over a foaming cataract, the gloomy valley or ravine, and the island crowned with aged fir trees, were all of them consecrated to religious terror.* Many stone and wooden idols and alcoves from two to five feet above the ground, the places on which the victims bled, have been observed in Russian Lapland by modern travellers.† It was customary to carve figures on sacred trees, some of them still remain. The Laplanders passed before their gods in profound silence, and the women, supposing themselves unclean, turned aside their eyes, or covered their faces with a veil.‡ Great men were deified after death, their souls became powerful spirits, that were propitiated by sacrifices. The sledge which bore a corpse was overturned, and the rein deer that drew it was slain on the tomb or near a pile of stones.

Magic.

The navigators of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, have related many wonderful stories about the magic of the *Finns* and the *Finno Lappes*, who sold wind contained in a cord with three knots. If the first were untied, the wind became favourable, if the second, still

* Scheffer's Laponia, p. 102.

† Georgi, Nations Russes.

‡ Leem's Description of Finmark, Chap. xx.

BOOK CVI.

more so, but if the third were loosed, a tempest was the inevitable consequence. The people in the interior had light and elastic balls made of wool, and *gans* or charms not much larger than flies. It was thought that the wizards could throw these weapons through the air, and strike the individual on whom they wished to inflict a lingering or mortal disease. The word *gan* or *gand* is common to the Finnic, Celtic, Scandinavian and German languages, it means generally deceit, illusion or magic,* hence *Gand wick* or the Gulf of Magicians, a name given by Scandinavian navigators to the White Sea, because all its coasts were at one time inhabited by Finnic nations. The drum was the great instrument of the magician, idols were fixed on it, the *arpa* or sacred rings moved to the strokes of his hammer, and from its motions he was able to foretell future events and the will of the gods.† The wizard fell sometimes on the ground and counterfeited death; his colour fled, his respiration ceased, his spirit was supposed to travel into distant countries, frequently into the other world. When the soul returned after a long absence into the body, the priest told the spectators what places he had visited, what he had learnt; remedies were prescribed, sacrifices enjoined, and whatever the sorcerer commanded, was implicitly obeyed. The *Schamans* of central Asia exercised the same arts, they had their drums, and fell into similar ecstasies. The wizards of Lapland exhibited their tricks to intelligent Swedes, and these foreign-

Gulf of Magicians.

* *Gand* or *gan* signifies magic or witchcraft in ancient Scandinavian. See *Landnama-Bok*, vocabulum, *Worm*. Specimen lexici Runici, p. 83. *Gand-reid*, magical equitation, *Ibid. Gand-alfur*, spirits and magicians that pass through the water on enchanted staffs. *Gan-eska* and *gan-hid* a box for magical instruments, Ibid. *Ganas* is a word still used in Lower Brittany for a deceiver or enchanter. (*Bullet.*) *Enganno*, deceit in Spanish, *Inganno*, the same signification in Italian. *Ganner*, a sharper in German. M. Roquefort need not have rejected the opinion of Bullet, who has clearly proved that the *ganellon* of the chivalrous romances, that betrayed the twelve peers of France at Ronscevallos, and delivered them to the Saracens, was merely a magician. See the word *gane* in the Glossaire de la langue Romane.

† The drum was called *quobdas* or *gobodes*, *kannus* or *ganuseh*.

ers, though convinced of the imposture, confessed themselves unable to detect it. Different theories have been advanced, and the prophetic trances have been considered the effects of excessive intoxication and *animal magnetism.*

All the Swedish and Norwegian Laplanders are now members of the reformed church, they are Christians ashamed of their former superstitions and idols; but those in the ancient Russian territory are ill instructed in divine truths by the eastern priests, they profess Christianity and retain their heathen ceremonies.

BOOK CVII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Fourth Section. Provinces round the Baltic Sea.

BOOK CVII.

General survey.

THE modern capital of the Russian empire is at no great distance from the polar deserts. Strangers may travel to Petersburg on frozen lakes, without putting off their Laponic furs, or leaving their sledge, or unharnessing their rein deer. The Russian provinces round the Baltic were inhabited by Finnic tribes, that fled before the Goths and Germans, who were forced to submit to the colossal power of Russia. The soil is barren, and the climate is cold, but palaces and temples are built on fens and marshes; and merchant fleets and naval squadrons are seen from the neighbouring rocks. The Russian cabinet, which is enveloped in fogs or covered with hoar-frost, forms its political schemes, and extends its sway on the banks of the Danube, and the central regions of Asia. It is from these provinces that the Russian observes with indifference the wars and revolutions in Europe. Alas, for what purpose have Charles and Gustavus subdued the Finns, or the Waldemars displayed the *danebrog* in Esthonia,* or the Teutonic knights planted the cross in the blood of the *Lives* and *Koures?* The czar of Muscovy issued from his unknown forests, and seized the fruits of so many heroic achievements.

* The Danebrog was a banner presented by the pope to the kings of Denmark.

Finland.

The provinces are naturally subdivided by the Neva and the gulf of Finland. The present great dutchy of Finland comprehends, besides the former Swedish province of the same name, all the government of Wiburg, or the ancient Russian Finland. It makes up on the north-west about a third part of that remarkable *region of great lakes* to which we have already called the attention of our readers.* We shall now offer some remarks on its physical geography and political history. If we enter into any details, it is because we consider them not destitute of interest, and because much useful information may be derived from the works of statistical and ethnographical writers.†

Physical description.

Mountains.

Finland is nearly as broad as the isthmus formed by the White Sea and the Baltic, an isthmus which connects Scandinavia and Russia, although its physical character is different from both these countries. The range of the Scandinavian mountains terminates on the north of Norway, and the heights in Finland are inconsiderable and detached. If any of them retain the appearance of a chain, it is those between Ostrobothnia on one side, and Savolax, Tavastland and Finland on the other. These heights consist chiefly of slate and hard lime-stone, they extend towards the town of Biorneborg, and terminate at the coasts of the Bothnian gulf. But they are merely a continuation of the interior ridge, and perhaps of the eastern part of the chain *Manselka*. Their name signifies the *division of the land*, but none of them have hitherto attracted attention. The southern confines of the same ridge are still lower, they are composed of granite, and below that rock are calcareous strata and fine marble in some places on the north of the lake Ladoga. The middle of Finland is thus a plain or ridge from four hundred to six hundred feet above the level of the sea. That part of the country abounds in lakes, and is covered with rocks,

Central ridge.

* See chapters 1st, 2d, and 3d, of this volume.

† Ruhs, Finnland und seine beohner.

BOOK CVII.

none of which form lofty chains, and they are generally composed of a red granite, which is termed *rapa-kivi*, in Finland, and decomposes with extraordinary rapidity. M. Gadd, a Swedish naturalist, maintains that the decomposition is most rapid when the granite contains a small portion of quartz, a great quantity of red feldspar, and a variety of ferruginous and sulphureous mica; still, however, the white feldspar granite is subject to the same spontaneous decomposition.

Giants caldrons.

The circular or rather spiral excavations in some rocks in Finland, are called by the natives the *iette-grytor* or giants caldrons. Different naturalists suppose them to have been formed not by a former but the present sea, yet many are situated in the interior, and others on the shore.

Ores.

It has been proved by repeated observations that Finland is ill provided with the metals which are so common in Scandinavia. It is believed, indeed, that there are no veins in the country, but only metallic alluvial deposites, which contain native iron, lead, sulphur and arsenic. It is certain that iron was once worked in Finland proper, but the Finlanders now import that metal from Sweden. Although a great quantity of nitre is made in the country, that branch of industry might be still more productive.

Rivers and lakes.

Finland is intersected by an immense number of lakes, from which many rivers rise, but none of them water a great extent of country. Thus the *Ulea* and the *Koumo* enter the gulf of Bothnia, the *Kymmene* is precipitated from different cataracts into the gulf of Finland, and the wide Woxa enlarges the lake Ladoga. The most central lake in the country is the *Payana* or the *Peaceable* from which the river Kymmene derives its source; it is about seventy-two miles in length, and thirteen in breadth. The lake of *Saima* on the east, which is crowded with islands, is still larger than the last. If its bays and inlets be included, it may perhaps be equal to one hundred and fifty miles in length, and to twenty or twenty-two at

its greatest breadth. It falls from six cataracts, of which the Imatra is the highest, and then communicates by the Woxa with the lake Ladoga.

Enclosure of rocks.

The coasts of Finland, particularly those on the south, are bounded by innumerable rocks of no great elevation above the sea. They rise for the most part in the form of peaks, are united in some places into groups, and extend in others like chains. They consist of a variety of granite and limestone, but it must be confessed that no very correct notion of them can be derived from the different topographical plans, which have hitherto been published. The small and intricate channels, the dangerous straits, the naked and rugged rocks, the tufted pines and firs, which crown some islands, and the shrubs that cover the sides of others, render the labyrinth one of the wonders in physical geography.*

Different climates.

The climate of southern Finland is cold and very variable; the thermometer descends so low as 24° or 25° below zero, and the crops are exposed in summer to excessive droughts. The country on the north of Ostrobothnia participates in the climate of Lapland, and grain is frequently sown and reaped in the neighbourhood of Uleaborg, where the soil is in general sandy, within the space of six weeks. The rapid growth of the plants must be attributed to the calmness of the nights and the perpetual presence of the sun. Frost continues seven months in Ostrobothnia, it begins in October, and does not terminate before the end of April. Spring therefore is almost unknown; summer begins in June and ends in August, autumn and winter make up the rest of the year. The heavy rains in September, and the thaws in May and June render it almost impossible to travel in these months.

Scenery.

The great disadvantage of the climate in the interior ridge arises from the lakes and marshes, which diffuse cold and unwholesome mists. The red granite, the moss-grown rocks, the green meadows, the blue lakes and crystal wa-

* Manuscript Notes of a Finlander.

BOOK CVII.

terfalls are rarely illumined by a cloudless sky. The brightness of the tints is too often effaced, and all the scenery enveloped in dismal fogs. The lake is darkened, the meadow loses its verdure, and the only contrast that remains out of so many, is the noise of the tempest, and the silence of the desert.

Soil.

A great part of the soil in Finland consists of a vegetable mould, and it is more fertile in many places than the hard and rocky ground in Sweden. The secale in the vicinity of Wasa, at 63° north latitude, is of a superior quality; buck wheat arrives at great perfection in Tavastland and Savolax, and barley and oats are everywhere cultivated. In good seasons the return is as eight to one of secale, and as seven to one of barley. The grain exported from Swedish Finland in 1795, amounted to 100,000 tons, but it exceeds rarely in ordinary years 45,000, and the inhabitants in the ancient Russian provinces cannot raise a sufficient quantity for their own consumption.

Animals.

The cattle in Finland are small, ill kept and subject to contagious diseases, by which a great many are destroyed. The Carelian horses are hardier and stronger than those in Sweden, but a mixed breed has been introduced, which is ill adapted for the climate. A great variety of game, particularly different kinds of birds, are concealed in the immense forests; the bear and the wolf are also very common. The rivers abound in excellent salmon, and herring and seal fisheries have been established in the labyrinth of islands and rocks, which surround the coasts of Finland.

Forests.

The forests are too often laid waste, but they yield plenty of tar, pitch, naval timber and fire wood. A hundred thousand cart loads of trees are imported every year into Stockholm; many of the peasants in Finland are employed in cutting wood, and each village has its wrights, joiners or turners, and the different articles that they make, are sold in the northern countries of Europe.

Fruit trees.

The culture of fruit trees is not incompatible with the climate of Finland; cherries and apples ripen at Wasa and

Jacobstadt in Ostrobothnia, and wild apple trees grow on the base of the hills that separate Ostrobothnia and Tavastland. The oak and the nut tree are rarely found beyond the sixtieth parallel, and then only in sheltered situations, but the ash extends to the sixty-second. The flax in Finland, though not very long or very fine, is at least as strong as the best in Russia.

The whole province is much more fruitful than might have been inferred from its astronomical position, and a sufficient quantity of food could be raised on it for two millions of inhabitants. But it must be admitted that human industry is checked by natural obstacles, which cannot be easily overcome. The rising corn is often destroyed by sudden frosts, and at the time when it is likely to reward the labour of the husbandman, it is sometimes devoured by a sort of caterpillar, which the natives call *turila*. Prayers were formerly read in the churches, and the divine protection was implored against that destructive insect. The peasants are obliged from the humidity of the air to dry all the grain in ovens, similar to those in the different Russian provinces; by this process, corn may be kept in Finland fifteen or eighteen years.

Method of tilling the ground.

The excessive moisture of the soil may render the method which the Finlanders employ in cleaning the ground, excusable, perhaps necessary, but if it be pushed to excess, it is most hurtful to the forests. The Finlanders have from time immemorial sown their seed in ashes obtained from the burning of trees. The lands thus dressed are divided into three classes. The *houktas* or *halmes* are those districts on which white firs and old timber have been scattered when the leaves are expanded; the wood remains two years in this state, it is afterwards set on fire, and secale is put into the ground. The *kaski* are the lands on which young trees are strewed and burnt about a year afterwards; the soil is then fit for barley or oats, turnips or secale. Lastly, the shrubs and brushwood which are spread on the *kieskamaa* or low hills in spring, are soon dried and reduced to ashes; crops of buck

wheat or flax are sometimes reaped in the succeeding autumn. The trees are burnt in some places in the midst of summer, and the seed is sown on the same evening in which the fire is extinguished; it thus adheres more readily to the ashes by means of the dew, which acts as a sort of cement, and it is less apt to be carried away by the wind. The ground is then turned with the *kaskisachra* or forked plough, and broken with a wooden harrow, instruments much better adapted for the purpose to which they are applied, than the common plough and the iron harrow. If the labour succeeds, the first crops yield about thirty or forty to one, nay, some fields have returned a hundred-fold.

The Finlanders have another method of cultivating the *kytæ* or marshy lands. Plants and trees are burnt on a small portion by way of experiment; if the ashes are red, it is a sign that the ground may be long and profitably cultivated; but if they are white, the land is supposed to be of a bad quality. The next object is to make outlets for the water; the trees, if there be any, are cut, and the whole space is, after the lapse of some years, encompassed with a ditch. The roots are dug, the turf is burnt, and the ground dried; the field is then impregnated with ashes, ploughed and sown.

This ancient system of agriculture cannot be wholly approved or wholly condemned. There is no surer or better way of bringing fens covered with brushwood into cultivation. But the peasants are too anxious to clear the forests; fields, which might yield regular crops, are neglected that greater harvests may be reaped from ashes.

The shallows and cataracts in many rivers in Finland render them useless for navigation, and in addition to that disadvantage, they often overflow their banks and inundate the plains. The Swedes therefore acted wisely in not extending their excellent roads to every part of the province. Thus the progress of agriculture is retarded in the interior by the difficulty of communication. The peasants, it is true, have many boats, and en-

joy the privilege of exporting the produce of their lands, still we must not forget the obstacles against which they have to struggle, or the short duration of summer, the weight and size of the articles that are exported, and the great distance from the interior to the mercantile towns on the coast. The northern Carelians must travel a hundred or a hundred and twenty-five miles to the nearest town. The Finlanders were compelled from their situation to make the utensils, the furniture and even the dresses which they required. There were whole districts, whose inhabitants never repaired to a town but for the purpose of obtaining salt. The Finlander thus limited in his wants and desires, enjoyed a sort of patriarchal independence, and passed his monotonous days far from civilization or the bustle of commerce. In this way many lived and died, although at the gates of a large city, in which the luxury of Europe is united to the effeminacy of Asia. The comparatively recent junction of the province to the Russian empire, has opened an advantageous market for Finland, and the inhabitants are already more industrious.

Provinces and Towns.

Carelia

The former government of Wiburg was divided into six small departments, and comprehended nearly the whole of Carelia or *Kyriala*, an ancient Finnic principality. The country abounds in sand and marshes, and the inhabitants gain a subsistence by cutting wood, by salmon fishing and the chase. They boast however of the pearls in the river *Jananus*, and the marble in the department of *Serdobol*. Ruskalk furnishes its ash-coloured marble with green and yellow veins, and Sumeira is famed for its fine red granite. The town of Wiburg was built in 1293 by the Swedes near *Suome-Linna*, the capital of the Carelians, and was formerly considered one of the bulwarks of Sweden. *Frederickshamn*, a more modern fortress, has, like the other, lost its military importance; in the same manner, *Wilmanstrand* or *Lapperanda*, *Nyslot* or *Savolinna* and other fortifications rose into temporary notice from their position on the frontiers. *Rotschensalm*, on the contrary, ought to be more fully mentioned, because it is situated

BOOK CVII.

between the two mouths of the Kymmene. It is a fortified port where forty ships of the line may anchor, and a station for a fleet of galleys; among its edifices are barracks for 14,000 men. This station, founded in 1795, was at that time the remotest frontier town in the province; but the Swedes have since had ample reason to repent that the noise of their cannon was heard in the neighbourhood of Petersburg. Such an establishment is unnecessary beyond the labyrinth of rocks which surround partly Sweden and Finland. The sea, flowing in a thousand straits and basins, rolls its impetuous billows, which are broken against projecting rocks; at another place, its calm surface is sheltered by islands against every wind. What ships then drawing much water could sail among rocks, where at every fifty yards they might enter a shallow, or be endangered at every island by the discharge of a twenty-four pounder from a concealed sloop? The various methods of warfare that might be employed on such coasts, can be easily imagined. A line of sloops may defend a passage between inaccessible rocks, or issue suddenly from an unknown strait. Two squadrons may be driven by currents against each other, they may mix, be confounded, and combat man to man. The best contrived schemes are often baffled by unforeseen obstacles, and victory is in a great degree the result of individual talent and courage. A vessel is frequently shipwrecked, or exposed to a masked battery. The assailants may be dispersed by the winds and billows, or the pursuit of the victors be impeded by a calm; in short, it is the most uncertain and various warfare of any mentioned in the records of modern history.

Manner of fighting.

Kuopio.

The department, formerly the prefecture of *Kuopio*, extends to the north of the government of Wiburg, and is formed on the east by northern Carelia, and on the west by Savolax or the northern *Savo-Ma*, a country of lakes, forests and sandy heaths, where the bear, the wolf, the elk and the wild rein-deer are found in great numbers. The lofty plains which separate the waters of the province from Cayania, are covered with snow ten months in the year. The inhabitants rear cattle, export potashes, tar

and butter, and raise a sufficient quantity of barley, secale and turnips for their own consumption; but the climate is too cold for peas, beans and the ordinary leguminous plants. Calcareous rocks and *lapis ollaris* or pot-stone are not uncommon in Carelia; and iron ore is found in greater quantities near Stromsdal, and in many parts of Savolax than in the rest of Finland. The inhabitants of *Taipali* in the parish of Tibelitz are now as industrious as the Russians, as great adepts in commercial knavery, and as rigid observers of the Greek rites; but the people in Kuopio and the other towns have not hitherto made such progress in the arts or civilization. Two large basins are marked by two series of lakes, those in northern Carelia are the *Pielis*, that extends from north to south, the limpid *Hoytiainen* and the *Oro-Vesi*, which discharge their waters into the *Puru-Vesi* or gulf of the Saimen. The largest lakes in Savolax are the *Kalla-Vesi* and *Hanka-Vesi*, both of them flow into the Saimen. The basins are not divided by contiguous heights but by necks of sandy land, and some of the lakes in the interior are separated from each other by natural dikes, which are so narrow that a man cannot pass them on horseback.

Basins of the Lakes.

The province of *Heinola* or *Kymenegard* is made up of lower Savolax and the eastern frontier of Nyland. A great part of it is sandy and marshy, but the land becomes more fruitful as we descend the Kymmene towards the gulf of Finland. The different grains cultivated in the province are the same as those which succeed in the other districts. A great quantity of butter is sold, secale is exported every year, and the inhabitants are now paying greater attention to the culture of hemp and flax. *Lovisa* and its citadel *Svartholm* are no longer a military station, but manufactures are still carried on in the ancient and dismal town of Borgo.

Heinola.

The Swedish prefecture of *Tavastehus* is now the department of *Helsingfors*, which comprises the greater portion of Nyland and Tavastland. The first of these provinces, or the Finnic *Uhsi-ma*, and the last or the *Haime-ma* are

BOOK CVII.

the most fruitful in Finland. According to the calculation of M. Gadd, the quantity of corn exported from the two provinces amounts in good years to 27.630 tons, and is not less in bad seasons than 14,224. The greater part of Nyland is low and flat, but some heights are observed in the interior, and the elevation of the lake *Loppis* is about 343 feet above the gulf of Finland. The rivers are well stored with fish, the forests are large, and many abound in oaks. Although rocks are thickly scattered in many parts of the country, much of the land is arable, the meadows are large, and the pastures are rich. Mines of copper and iron have been discovered, there is no scarcity of lime, and the hop yields plentiful harvests. Some manufactures might be mentioned, but the wealth of the inhabitants consists in the produce of their fields and rivers. They trade in fish, wood and grain, yet the greater number are too indolent to avail themselves of the best methods of husbandry.

Tavastland.

Tavastland, particularly the southern portion, is a fruitful and compact district; it is watered by lakes and rivers, its forests are valuable, its fields and meadows productive; indeed, as to natural advantages, it is not only the first province in Finland, but none in the ancient kingdom of Sweden surpassed it in fertility, yet cultivation is neglected, and the inhabitants are poor. The lake Payane often inundates the neighbouring lands, and the falls in the river Kymmene shut effectually the only outlet for the produce of the country. Northern Tavastland is more mountainous, a greater portion of it is covered with forests, and it is partly included in the government of Wasa. The western lakes of Tavastland unite near *Tammersfors*, and flow by the *Kumo* into the gulf of Bothnia. *Tavastehus*, the former *Kroneberg* or the Finnic *Hoeme-Kaupungi* is the only place of consequence in the interior; it is built near the small fortress of *Tavasteborg*, which was converted during the last war into an arsenal for the left wing of the Swedish army. Some places not unworthy of notice are situated on the gulf of Finland. *Hango-Udd* or the pro-

Remarkable places.

montory of Hango is the southmost point in continental Finland, but it lies to the north of several islands, which surround it. The latitude of the watch tower at the entrance of the gulf is 59°, 45′, 58″, and near it is a spacious harbour protected by the fortress of *Gustafs-Vern*, now a very important military position for Russia, and formerly the bulwark of Sweden. *Helsingfors*, a commercial town in a fruitful peninsula, has a safe and deep port, and a rapidly increasing population of nine or ten thousand souls; it is at present styled the capital of the great dutchy, and if we may judge from the advantages of its position, it is likely to retain the title.

Forts of Sveaborg.

The fortress of Sveaborg, the cause of great grief to the Swedes, and the principal trophy of the Russians, is not more than two miles to the south of Helsingfors. This model of modern military architecture is formed by seven islands, which command a large harbour. *Lang-œ*,* or the nearest island to Helsingfors, *Wester-Svartœ*† and Bakholm or the rock of the watch tower are the three in which the houses of the garrison have been built. *Lilla Oester Svartœ*‡ contains an arsenal of artillery, and between it and *Stora-Oester-Svartœ*§ is the station of all the galleys. The residence of the governor, and the principal magazines are situated in *Warg-œ*,‖ and the galleys and war-ships are repaired in its two basins. The citadel is erected on *Gustafs Svoerd*,¶ or the sword of Gustavus, which is united to *Wargœ* by a bridge, it possesses a reservoir of fresh water, an advantage that is not to be found in the other islands. Skantzland is an eighth island, but its fortifications are not complete, and from its position on the south of *Gustafs Svoerd*, it is the only place from which an enemy might attack the citadel, or, according to some authors, bombard it. This defect may soon be remedied by the Russians. The fortifications of Sveaborg are on a large scale; some

* The Long Island.

† The Black Island on the West.

‡ The Small Black Island on the East.

§ The Large Black Island on the East.

‖ Wolf's Island.

¶ The island of redoubts.

BOOK CVII.

of the ramparts are cut in the solid rock, and formed by a mass of stone about 48 or 50 feet in height, all of them are covered with gazon, and they are thus less likely to be injured by ricochet firing and the bursting of bombs. Many English travellers have admired the Roman grandeur of these works; yet the Gibraltar of Finland was entered and taken without resistance. A few bombs were discharged from batteries of ice collected on the Frozen sea, and the governor surrendered. True therefore is the old Lacedemonian adage—"the best ramparts are the hearts of the citizens."

Finland Proper.

Finland Proper or the province of Abo forms the south-west portion of the principality, which was subdued and civilized by the Swedes before the rest of the country was conquered. It is probably on that account that the population is more concentrated than in any other province, and the system of husbandry, the best in Finland. *Abo*, the ancient Finnic *Turcou* is situated on the banks of the *Aura*, which issues from lake *Pyha*. The town, though no longer the capital, is one of the most agreeable in Finland, the inhabitants are industrious, although they derive little advantage from their proximity to Sweden. The university was founded by queen Christina in 1640, the climate is not genial, the endowments are trifling, still the college enjoys no mean reputation. Amongst its distinguished students, were Gadolin the chymist, Franzen the poet, and the erudite bishop of Portham, who, in a series of dissertations, has thrown more light than any other author, on the history of Finland. The population amounts to 12,000 souls, the trade is considerable, and the inhabitants have docks and sugar houses, silk and woollen manufactories. *Aboslat* or the citadel of Abo, which might maintain a siege for some weeks, is about an English mile to the south-west of the town. The numerous islands in the Archipelago of Abo have been remarked on account of the varied scenery which the stranger observes almost at every fifty yards. *Runsala*, which is covered with oak and nut trees, may vie in that respect with any English or Chinese garden. *Nystad* is a

Towns.

maritime town with a convenient harbour, its exports are corn, timber and sail cloth; some of the inhabitants are employed in manufacturing wool. *Raumo* is situated in the district of *Satacunda*, and its lace is supposed to be better than any other made in Finland. The trade of *Biærneborg*, another town in the same part of the country, might be greatly improved, if the *Kumo*, which issues from Tavastland, could be rendered navigable. A pearl fishery has been established at *Sastmola*, near the northern limit of lower Satacunda; three or four pearls are sometimes, though not often, found in the same shell.

Islands, Aland.

The small Archipelago which fronts Abo, forms the most western part of the Russian empire, and it is separated from Sweden by the strait of *Alands-Haf*. The largest islands are *Aland*, *Lemland*, *Kumlinge*, *Wardœ*, *Brandœ* and *Lumparland* on the east, and *Ekerœ* on the west. The whole group encloses an extent of 11000 Swedish square miles,* and the inhabitants may amount to 13,000. The hills on the islands are chiefly composed of coarse red granite; lime however is not uncommon, and one quarry is at present worked. The climate is not cold, and many of the islanders are good husbandmen. The common crops are secale and barley, and the average return is as eight to one. The forests consist of birch, alder and fir trees, which are exported every year to Stockholm. Six hundred and eighty species are enumerated in the flora of these islands, and the cryptogamia are not fewer than one hundred and eighty. The cheese of Aland is exported into different countries from a small group of islands, that form the parish of *Fulgœ*. The sea-dog fisheries are very variable, in some seasons they are productive, in others few are taken, and the poorer classes are then deprived of their ordinary food. There are not many quadrupeds, the elk and the bear are never seen, the wolf is perhaps the most common. The rocks on the large islands are sometimes covered with sea fowl, a great many of them are sold in the neighbouring continent,

* The Swedish mile is equal to 4 1-6 English miles.

BOOK CVII.

and high prices are given for their eggs and plumage. The capital of Sweden is supplied with fish from the Archipelago, and 6000 tons of herrings are salted every year on the different islands. The mariners sail between Sweden and Finland, and their clean and well-furnished villages are an undoubted proof of their comparative affluence. The Swedish language is spoken, and the manners and customs of the inhabitants are little different from those in the same country. The islands of Aland formed a small Scandinavian kingdom long before the Swedish conquest of Finland, but the name of the village Iomala might lead us to believe the existence of a Finnic population at a very remote period. While we ascend the Bothnian gulf, we observe the plains of Ostrobothnia, the low land or the Finnic *Kainu-Ma*, of which the interior is not unlike the northern part of Savolax and Tavastland. The wolf and the bear haunt immense forests, or wander near innumerable lakes. Grain ripens rapidly in the south or in the district of Wasa, and a great part of the produce is exported. The other exports are iron, cheese and tar of a much better quality than the Ulean. The *Kyro-Ioki* is the largest river in the province, and the principal towns are Christinastadt, Kaskae, Wasa, which was founded by Charles the Ninth, Carleby and Jacobstadt; the two last are peopled by hardy mariners.

Ostrobothnia.

Wasa.

The northern part of Ostrobothnia forms the ancient prefecture or the present department of *Uleaborg*. The short and cold summers in that region are owing to the vicinity of the polar circle, to a northern exposure and a humid soil. Good harvests are rare, the seed cannot be put into the ground before the end of May or beginning of June, otherwise it might be destroyed by morning frosts. Trees are burnt and reduced to ashes on the fields, and by this method abundant crops are raised. The cattle, although of a small breed, yield more butter and cheese than the inhabitants can consume. Forests, marshes and moss-grown rocks cover the greater part of the coun-

try. Tar is obtained in different districts, thus the town of Uleaborg exports from 27,000 to 29,000 tons every year, and no fewer than 2,160,000 fir trees are necessary in the making of that quantity. We are thus enabled to form some notion of the extent of the forests. The woods abound in squirrels, and the peasants kill them by means of dogs trained for the purpose. When the goods of a father are divided among his children, a well-trained dog is considered as valuable as a good milch cow. The cataracts of *Pyha-Kosky* and *Taival Kosky* form the finest landscapes in the country.* The stranger looks in vain for the genial climate of the south, but the further he advances northwards, the fruits on the shrubs become more fragrant and aromatick.

Towns.

The town of Uleaborg, one of the wealthiest in Finland, contains 4000 souls; the people work in the manufactories or dock yards, and export tar, butter and salmon. *Brahestadt* derives its name from the Count of Brahe, the great benefactor of Finland. The towns are peopled by Swedes, and the country by Finns; the inhabitants of the former are polished and hospitable, their amusements serve to dispel the gloom of a winter that lasts nine months. The higher part of the river Ulea is little known, and the traveller who repairs to that region, might visit the large basin of the Ulean lake, where a number of others extend both from north and south-east, and are united by rivers, which fall in cascades through thick forests. Some isolated farms, distant about thirty or forty miles from each other, are scattered in these deserts. The castle of *Hysis* is situated in the parish of Paldamo, which is more than 200 miles in length. A solid rock was cut and changed into a fortress; its ruins and gigantic staircase remind us of the chivalrous times and the age of romance.

Castle of Hysis.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Ostrobothnia are frank, hospitable and industrious. Some of the young women make before their marriage, a sufficient quantity of clothes to last them

* Koski is a Finnic word which signifies a cataract.

BOOK CVII.

a lifetime. It may therefore be naturally inferred that the fashions of the country are not subject to much variation. The Ostrobothnians are said to be the best builders of small vessels in Sweden, they used formerly to travel to different towns in which they were employed as shipwrights. The people in the interior are of Finnic origin, and those on the coast speak the Swedish dialect. The governor of Uleaborg extends his sway over a part of Lapland, and by the efforts of Finnic husbandmen, agriculture is now extended in his province, as on the coasts of Norwegian Lapland, beyond the polar circle. The wandering Laplanders seldom appear in the colony, but the rein deer has multiplied on the hills of Manselka or inland Ostrobothnia, where flocks of these animals find the moss necessary for their subsistence. It happens sometimes that the peasants of Uleaborg cannot obtain enough of flour for their own consumption, and the poorest eat bread made from the bark of trees.

Finlanders.

The great dutchy of Finland, which we have endeavoured to describe, was not the country of the Fenni, whom Tacitus mentions, or to speak more correctly, the information that the Roman historian received, did not relate to a separate country, but to a distinct people. The *Phinni* and the *Zoumi* or *Suomes* are vaguely placed by Strabo and Ptolemy in Pannonia. Jornandes wrote several ages afterwards, and although he gives an account of the *Finni* and their different tribes, it is difficult to discover what region they inhabited. They resided beyond *Scanzia*, but the historian of the Goths says nothing concerning the eastern limits of that country. The *Estes* of Jornandes and Other, were probably of Finnic origin, although they dwelt far to the south of the present Esthonia. It is certain that Finnic nations migrated to the north, but the cause of their migrations is now unknown. The learned Thunmann has shown that some Finns remained in eastern Prussia so late as the year 1259;* yet no mention is made

* Thunmann, Recherches sur les peuples du Nord, 18, 23.

of the time that the first Finns entered Finland. Three nations, the *Quaines* on the north, the *Kyriales* on the south-east, and the *Ymes* or *Iemes* on the south-west, inhabited that country in the tenth, eleventh and twelfth centuries. It may be inferred from the names of different places in the eastern districts, that the shepherds of Lapland wandered among these settled tribes.* The Quaines, who are frequently mentioned by the Icelandic writers, called themselves *Kainu-Lainen* or inhabitants of the low country, and were termed *Cayani* by the modern Latinists. The same people inhabited Ostrobothnia, settled in Lapland and on the shores of the White Sea, which derived from them the name of *Quen-Sea* or *Quen-Vik*. The Quaines submitted to kings or warlike chiefs, who made war against the Norwegians, when the latter established themselves in Helsingland and Westrobothnia, and when they pillaged the coasts of the White Sea. It is probable that a branch of the same tribe advanced to Kiow in the south of Russia, at all events that place is often called *Koenugard* or the town of the Kaines by the Icelandic historians; but it is not impossible that the last name may have been common to another Finnic tribe. Ostrobothnia is still called *Kainu* or *Kainu-ma* by the Finlanders. *Adamus Bremensis* happened to be present at a conversation in which king Swenon spoke of *Quen-Land* or *Quena-Land*, the country of the Quaines, but as the stranger's knowledge of Danish was very imperfect, he supposed the king had said Quinnaland, the country of women or Amazons; hence the origin of his *Terra Feminarum*.†

Ymes.

The *Ymes* or Iemes took the Finnic name of *Heima-Lainen*, they inhabited Tavastland, Nyland and Finland

* Gerschau maintains in his history of Finland, (1810) that the Laplanders only were called *Finns*, and that they were driven from the country by the *Quaines*, the *Ymes* and *Kyriales*, whom he includes under the name of *Tchoudes*. His hypothesis is perhaps taken from the work of *Lehrberg*, which I have not hitherto been able to consult.

† The history of Norway by Forfæus from the *Eigla*, an Icelandic work. Schæning's Ancient Geography of Norway, 28, 30. Gaiterer's Historical Library, V. 317, 329.

BOOK CVII.

Proper; it is likely too that their colonists settled in Swedish Nordland.

Kyriales.

The Kyriales or Carelians possessed all the countries on the north of lakes Ladoga and Onega from the gulf of Finland to the White Sea. The commercial republick of Novgorod, and the warlike Swedes contended from the year 1156 to 1293, for the preponderance over these simple and rude people, who seldom cultivated their fields, and subsisted by hunting, fishing and rearing cattle. The heads of families exercised a despotic authority, and the women were treated as slaves. The Finns were then ignorant of that imperfect system of husbandry which has been continued amongst them to the present day. They practised however, some mechanical arts, and among others, that of working metals; they had names for silver, iron and copper, and according to a popular tradition, the most ancient mines in Scandinavia were discovered by the Finns.

Mythology.

The mythology of the Finlanders was connected with the religious notions of the Laplanders and Biarmians; but their traditions were not collected before many of the inhabitants had been converted or at least baptized by catholic missionaries. The Supreme Being was *Rawa* or the *old*, his name recalls the *Radien* of the Laplanders. It cannot be determined if there was any affinity between that divinity and the good and evil principles, or the *Joumala* and *Perkel*. Two sons of Rawa act a conspicuous part. *Wainamoinen* created fire, invented the *kandela* or Findic lyre, built the first ship, and taught men almost all the arts of civilization. *Ilmarainen* reigns in the air and on the winds; to him men are indebted for the forge, he assists his brother in all his contests against the wicked genii. *Veden Ema* or the mother of the waters was adored by the Esthonians, and *Sakamieli* or the goddess of love was not unknown to the Laplanders. The natives of Tavastland, a branch of the Ymis, worshipped *Turris*, the god of war, a divinity that has been confounded with the Scandinavian Thor. The name of the former

is derived from a Finnic word, which signifies a battle. The people were hunters, and lived in more southern countries when their mythology flourished. Thus *Tapio* protects bees, cures wounds and tends the flocks; he leads the hunter into the forests, but allows his sister and his wife *Tapiolan-Emenda* to guide her worshippers in the pursuit of wild fowl. It is vain however to attempt to kill a quadruped without imploring the aid of Hysis, a sullen and formidable giant, the destroyer of bears and wolves. The petty gods presided over the meaner game of hares and squirrels. To the different rural divinities of the Carelians were reserved the care of secale, barley and oats, but *Kekki* was the general protector of agriculture. His name signifies a *cuckoo*, and the god might have been so called in allusion to the spring, or the Finnic divinities might have been represented by the figures of animals.

Magic.

Finland was also the country of giants, gnome-like spirits and supernatural beings that frequented the deserts, murmured in the waterfall, raged in the tempest, and illuded the traveller and the hunter by a thousand phantastic forms. Magic was universally believed, it was connected with the worship and manners of the people, but degraded by the low arts and vulgar deceit of the priests or wizards. The ancient traditions have unfortunately been mixed with others of more modern date, little information can therefore be derived from them. Music was a very powerful instrument in the old superstition, by it the sands on the sea shore were changed into diamonds. the corn danced into the barn-yard, trees moved in harmony, and bears listened to the notes of Wainamoinen's lyre. The divine minstrel, impelled within the vortex of his magic, fell into ecstasies, and shed a fountain of pearls, not a flood of tears.* It is certainly not a little extraordinary that the attributes of an Orpheus or an Amphion can be found in such a country as Finland. We shall not inquire whether the Finns inhabited formerly a region on the banks

Finnic Orpheus.

* Schroter on the Runic characters of the Finns.

BOOK CVII.

of the Tanais, not so far distant from Greece; but their present country, though very different, might impress the mind with strong emotions. The roaring cataract, the calm lake and the rugged rock were the *pyha* or holy places in which their ancestors worshipped. The hell of the Finns, like that of the Irish, was situated in their native soil. According to the national songs, the souls of wicked men were sent to *Hippumaiki*, a place on the banks of the Kemi, where a large stone with excavations in the centre, was often stained with the blood of victims. The priests only were permitted to approach it.*

Finnic language.

The Finnic language is perhaps the most sonorous and best adapted for poetry of any in Europe. It is not unlike the Hungarian, all the words terminate in vowels, and two consonants rarely follow each other. The letters *b*, *d*, *f* and *g* form no part of their alphabet, but some foreign words have been introduced, in which the three last consonants are used. Michael Agricola, bishop of Abo, was the first foreigner who wrote in Finnic; he published his translation of the Scriptures in 1558.

Dialects.

Three dialects, those of Carelia or Savolax, Ostrobothnia and Finland proper, are still spoken in the country. They correspond with the three tribes, or the Kyriales, Quaines and Ymes. The Esthonians and Finlanders can understand each other.

Runic characters.

It is very unlikely that any information can be gained concerning the origin of the Runic characters used by the Finns. How could it be determined that these characters were communicated to the Goths of Scandinavia, or that the letters of the one and the other people had a common origin during the age of Wodinism, in a period anterior to the vulgar era? It might not, however, be difficult to show that the Finns, the Wendes, the Anglo-Saxons and Scandinavians were accustomed to write on the ground with a spear or sharp-pointed instrument.†

Character.

The present Finlanders are grave, but intrepid and indefatigable. They can endure the severest privations, but

* Ruhs, XXVI. † Runa signifies a javelin in ancient Latin.

their perseverance is little removed from obstinacy. Their attachment to their national name, customs and language, rendered them incapable of appreciating the blessings of civilization, which the Swedes were anxious to diffuse amongst them. Their signal ingratitude to Gustavus the Third, is no very favourable trait in their character. Had the Finlanders not been guilty of treason, that king might have made himself master of Petersburg. Although the people may submit to Russians rather than to Swedes, they are aware that independence is infinitely preferable to the domination of the czar; at present, however, they must remain satisfied with the forms of a national government. Russia and the great dutchy have been declared two distinct but inseparable states, terms of ordinary occurrence in diplomatic logic, but wholly unintelligible when applied to history or geography. All the offices are held by Finlanders. The senate regulates the affairs of the community, and presides over the administration of justice. Swedish laws are still in force, and the national representation is the same as in Sweden. The diets of Finland were sanctioned by the presence of the Emperor Alexander.

Government.

The civil rights of the peasantry are as much protected as in any province of Sweden; if their freedom has in some districts degenerated into licentiousness, it may be attributed to the nature of the country and the habits of the people.

Public instruction was neglected before the time of Gustavus the Third. The Swedes are better informed than the inhabitants of most countries of Europe, but as they spoke a different language, it was impossible for them to communicate their knowledge to the Finlanders. But public schools have been established for the last twenty years in Finland, and they have every year been more numerously attended. Many books are circulated, and wherever Swedes and Finlanders make up the population, sermons are alternately preached in the two languages. A

Schools.

BOOK CVII.

Lutheran archbishop is primate of Finland, and the Greek priests make no proselytes.

If avarice and selfishness be the vices of the people on the southern coasts, if they have contracted habits of mercantile chicane, it must be admitted that the other inhabitants are charitable and addicted to hospitality. All the Finlanders, it is said, are revengeful and implacable in their resentments, an accusation which is unfortunately strengthened by the crimes and murders committed in the rural districts; still some allowance must be made for the animosity and mutual jealousy that subsists between the Finnic peasantry and the Swedish husbandmen.

Poetry and music.

Almost every Finlander is a poet or musician. A cottage surrounded by forests or marshes in the interior of the country, is often the residence of a bard, whose rustic and simple songs enliven all the villagers. The polished odes of our academic poets are far inferior in point of genius and originality to the effusions of these minstrels. Their poetry is sung to the accompaniment of the *kandela* or lyre, and it is an important rule in Finnic versification, that most of the words in a line commence with the same letter, a sort of caprice, which is not unknown in other languages, for example the Scandinavian and ancient Latin.*

Habitations.

The peasants reside in cottages or *poertes*, that are not divided into apartments, and the wretched hut is warmed by a large stove fixed to the wall. The smoke issues by an aperture in the roof, or by the doors and windows. They are illumined during the long nights of winter by splinters of fir smeared in pitch. It is wonderful that the people can contrive to keep their clothes and linen so clean in these dark and smoky dwellings. Vapour baths are used by all the Finlanders, and it is evidently from the Finns settled formerly in central Russia that the same custom was communicated to the Slavonians. The baths are not spacious, several steps are heated from 130° to 160°

Vapour baths.

* *Noctis* et *nimbum* occæcat *nigror*. (Ennius.)
Ducite ab urbe *domum*, mea carmina, *ducite Daphnim*. (Virgil.)

of Fahrenheit, and by pouring boiling water on red-hot stones, the place is soon filled with vapour. The bather descends from step to step, and is in a short time covered with a profuse perspiration; he then washes himself in tepid water, and the office of drying and rubbing his body is always reserved for the women. The Finlander, before he puts on his clothes, rolls in winter on the snow, and in summer on the grass.

BOOK CVIII.

EUROPE.

European Russia. Fourth Section. Description of the provinces on the Baltic, continued and concluded.

BOOK CVIII.

Gulf of Finland.

One of the most remarkable combinations in the physical geography of Europe, has been observed in the south of Finland. The lake Onega approaches the White Sea, and passes by the *Swir* into the great lake Ladoga, which flows through the large Neva into the long and narrow gulf of Finland. If the level of the gulf were 600 feet higher, it might cover the whole country between it and the lake Onega; nay more, if we judge from the apparent elevation of the heights in the two basins, it might join the White Sea. The rocks on the gulf are mixed with shells, or composed of compact limestone; the same substance is common in Ingria, and forms partly the basins of the Ladoga and Onega, but granite peaks rise in most places through the calcareous mass. The water is brackish and not very deep; it is shallow near the sloping heights on the southern coasts, and the central current is marked by a great many light-houses. The eastern extremity of the gulf forms the bay of Cronstadt, which might be more correctly termed the embouchure of the Neva. The water is fresh and drinkable at Cronstadt; it flows in calm weather westwards, or in the same direction as the river; its course, however, is often obstructed by reeds and sand. The navigable current terminates at the depth

of two fathoms; large merchantmen have lighters, and ships of war never issue from the docks of Petersburg without floating butts. The mass of waters in the gulf is often impelled into the bay of Cronstadt by a tempestuous west wind. The Neva having on these occasions no outlet, recoils on the quays or streets of Petersburg, and rises to the first stories of the houses. Ships are sometimes thrown into the town, and casks of sugar, pipes of wine, books and furniture float in confusion. The billows have entered the marble staircase of the imperial palace, and the czar and his generals have sailed in boats through the streets, and rescued citizens from a watery grave. The breadth of the Neva varies from five hundred to eight hundred yards; its limpid waters never freeze before the 29th of October, and the ice is never melted before the 25th of March. The lake *Ladoga* is surrounded on the north by calcareous rocks that contain quarries of fine marble, the banks in other places are low and sandy. The bed consists chiefly of gravel; the water is clear and abounds in fish. The lake is covered every year with a thick crust of ice, and it is then that the labours of the fishermen are most successful. There are more inequalities on the banks of the Onega, but in other respects its physical character is the same. The streams of its feeders fall in cataracts, or wind slowly through heaths and barren land.

Inundations of the Neva.

Lake Ladoga.

Lake Onega.

The province of Ingria or Ingermanland derives its name from the small river Ischora, which is called Inger by the Swedes. The country was ceded to Russia in 1721, and it now forms the greater part of the government of Petersburg. The districts on the west included the former Iama, and the *Votes*, a Finnic tribe, peopled the western banks of the Ladoga. The Ischores, another branch of the Finns, still inhabit the country on the south of the Neva. The province is low, and almost wholly covered with woods or marshes. The soil is sterile, cold and humid. Indeed, with the exception of a few country seats, some gardens and lands attached to government manufactories, the face of nature indicates poverty, wretchedness and want. Rye

Ingria.

BOOK CVIII.

is raised with difficulty, cherries are confined to a few gardens, and bees are so seldom seen that a hive is considered a great rarity; but fruit-bearing shrubs, wild fowl and different kinds of fish are very common.

Climate, seasons.

Many valuable observations have been made on the climate. An ordinary year may be divided into 162 days of winter or continued frost, 59 of spring, (in that season the mornings and evenings are frosty) and 144 of summer or fresh weather. The mean *maximum* of cold in a period of seventeen years was equal to 22° below zero of Fahrenheit, and on the 9th of February 1810, the thermometer descended so low as 35° 30′ on the same scale. The heat of summer is occasionally as high as 92°. Frost begins commonly about the 27th of September, and continues to the same time in April. The greatest degree of cold in the year 1791 did not exceed 173° of Delisle;* the number of frosty days was not greater than 188, and in 99 only the frost continued without interruption. The mean maximum of cold, as indicated by Delisle's thermometer, was equal to 170°† during five days, to 160°‡ during forty-four, and to 150°§ during a hundred and thirty. The highest temperature in the summer of the same year was greater than 110° of Delisle,‖ and according to the mean result of different observations, it remained thirty-one days about 120,¶ seventy-seven above 130°,** and fifty-four at 140°.†† Lastly, it varied in a period of 101 days, between 140° and 150° or the point of congelation. It may be easily believed that the year in which these observations were made, was unusually mild. The winter lasts eight months in ordinary seasons, and in the remaining four the weather is variable. It appears from a calculation of the great Euler, that there are always sixty days in the year in which snow or rain never falls at Petersburg. If, says M. Pallas,

* A hundred and seventy-three degrees of Delisle's thermometer are equal to 4° 24′ of Fahrenheit.

† 8° of Fahrenheit. ‡ 20° of Fahrenheit. § 32° of Fahrenheit.

‖ 80° of Fahrenheit. ¶ 68° of Fahrenheit.

** Above 56° of Fahrenheit. †† 44° of Fahrenheit.

the pear and plum trees be grafted, they perish in winter, and biennial plants rarely resist the cold. The country is often obscured with fogs; it abounds in musquitoes, and is colder than the province of Drontheim in northern Norway at the parallel of 63°.

Petersburg.

The new capital of Russia was founded by Peter the Great in this unhealthy region, on a shallow port, which is frozen three or four months in the year, near marshes covered with ice, and islands exposed to inundations. It was the monarch's first design to make Petersburg a military harbour and an arsenal. The small fortress of *Nyenschantz* had been built in the year 1300, at a short distance from it, on the higher banks of the Neva. It was taken in 1703 by Peter the First, who determined to change it into a place of defence against Sweden. It was not long, however, before he altered his purpose, or imagined that he had discovered the best station for the fleet which was to be established on the Baltic, and the most advantageous port for the foreign trade of Russia. So extravagant were his notions on this subject, that the seat of government was transferred thither in 1721. It would have been difficult at that time to have found a place in the whole of inhabited Russia, worse adapted for the capital. The czar did not perhaps expect to make himself master of Riga, otherwise it might have been chosen for a commercial port, and it was probably the desire of opening a prompt communication between the Neva and the interior by the canal of Nista and the Wolchowa, that induced him to undertake his great work. We differ from the admirers of that prince, because it was easy to have found on the banks of the Neva, a site better fitted for a town than a marsh, where the houses rest on piles, which may one day give way under the costly fabrics that they now support. The nobles refused at first to reside in a city that appeared to them a place of exile; but Peter *wished* it, and his energy enabled him to triumph over nature and the opposition of the nation. Petersburg was built, and although on an unfavourable position, it is now one of the

BOOK CVIII.

Different quarters.

most magnificent capitals in Europe; it is certainly the most remarkable on account of the number of its edifices, the size of its squares, the breadth of the streets, and the waters by which the heterogeneous mass is divided. The hexagonal citadel stands on the *island of Petersburg*, it is a fortress wholly useless as a place of defence, but it might contain a revolted multitude. The cathedral church of St. Peter and St. Paul, where the emperors are interred, the small wooden house in which Peter the First resided, when he laid the foundation of the town, the botanical garden and the medical college are situated in the same quarter, which is cut into several islands, and the houses are the worst built of any in Petersburg. The *Wasili Ostrow* or the *island of Basil* on the west, is much larger; it was there that Peter the Great wished to found the town, and that the first houses were erected; its present inhabitants are mostly mariners and merchants. It consists of twelve long, broad and straight streets, which are called *Lines*, and the finest buildings are the custom house, the treasury, the flax warehouse, the *twelve colleges* or ministerial departments, the seminary of the marine cadets, the university, the observatory, and lastly, the academy of arts, of which we shall afterwards speak more fully. The harbour of the galleys is built at the extremity of the island. The quarter of the admiralty, or the residence of the court, the nobility and ambassadors, is the finest in Petersburg. It is an island which lies to the south of the two former, is surrounded by the Neva and Fontanka, and divided into three parts by the Moika and Catherine's canal. The principal ornaments are the admiralty, the equestrian statue of Peter the First, the palace of winter, the hermitage, the palace and gardens of summer, and the costly churches of Isaac and the virgin of Casan. The last edifice adorns the street of the Neva, which is seven versts in length.* The surface of Petersburg is not less than seventy-four square

* Two miles and a half.

versts,* but the buildings do not cover the thirteenth part of that space. There are six large and twenty-four small bridges, and the whole town consists of eleven quarters, thirty-five districts, 400 public buildings, 9000 houses, and 300,000 inhabitants.† It may be remarked that the population of Petersburg is distinguished from that of the other European capitals, by the extreme disproportion in the numbers of the two sexes. All the inhabitants amounted in 1813 to 285,500, and they consisted of 197,994 males, and 87,506 females. A garrison of forty or fifty thousand men, and a number of strangers equal to 36,000, are not sufficient to account for so great a disparity, more particularly as many individuals among the last class are married and settled in the town. There are at present at Petersburg 25,000 Germans, 3000 French, 1500 Swedes and 1000 English. Sermons are preached in fifteen languages. The Catholics are more numerous than the Lutherans, but the latter are at least equal to 20,000 individuals.

Population.

It has been maintained that the city of Peter the Great is not inferior to any in Europe, and the same place has been considered a confused assemblage of gaudy and inelegant monuments. We shall try to discover what is true in these conflicting opinions. Several edifices are built according to the modern Italian style, modified by the caprice of different sovereigns, and their numerous defects may be attributed to these two causes.

Architecture.

The palace of winter is a very large building that communicates with the hermitage, the favourite residence of Catherine, which joins the theatre. So great a mass of contiguous buildings on the banks of a river, produces a fine effect. The architecture of the *marble palace* sets all rules at defiance. The spectator observes many pillars and pilasters almost touching each other, of the same proportions, but of different orders, windows of unequal depth

* Thirty-two square miles.

† The number of houses is underrated; according to the statement in the text, there must be on an average more than thirty-three persons in each house.

BOOK CVIII.

in the same hall, varying sometimes from five to nine feet. Marble, bronze, copper and iron are lavished in every direction, and the furniture is costly and of rare workmanship. The ancient palace of summer is built of wood on a pleasant situation; the new one is constructed of bricks after the Dutch fashion. The garden of the same name is only remarkable on account of its granite colonnade, for although the statues *made in Italy*, are according to the German writers, masterpieces of modern art, they are in the opinion of M. Fortia, below mediocrity. The academy of the fine arts was for a long time the only building admired by every stranger that visited Petersburg; but the churches of *Isaac* and Casan are of a later date, and not inferior to any in that style of architecture, which is approved in places of Christian worship, and sanctioned by the customs of the Greek church. Twenty-six millions of roubles were expended on the first temple, which is wholly composed of marble; the second is an imitation of St. Peter's at Rome, and its peristyle is partly formed by fifty-six granite pillars. The equestrian statue of Peter the Great by Falconet, is placed at the entrance of the bridge across the Neva, on the side of the admiralty. The horse in this statue, as in many others of the same kind, is considered the finest part of the work. The Russian hero is supposed to have reached the summit of a rock, which is represented by an immense block of granite, that was found in a marsh about fifteen miles from Petersburg. It weighed upwards of 1336 tons, but it has been cut and polished, and the effect which so novel a pedestal might have otherwise produced, is totally destroyed. The treasury and many other buildings are admirable examples of that rustic but singularly varied style, that prevails in the ludicrous *propylæa* of the French capital. The Russians may boast of Petersburg, the Parisians may extol Paris, but it is difficult to determine whether judges of classical architecture could find more to reprehend on the banks of the Neva, than on the banks of the Seine. The breadth of the streets, the solidity of quays built of granite, the

Statue of Peter the Great.

profusion of porphyry and precious marble, and above all, the cheerful spectacle of a fine river and an extensive commerce are the greatest ornaments in the city of Peter the Great.

Trade of Petersburg.

Four fifths of the Russian trade are concentrated in Petersburg; its imports have amounted of late years from a hundred and twenty to a hundred and thirty millions of roubles; its exports have not increased in the same proportion. The inhabitants are making rapid advances in the arts; manufactories of tapestry, gilded bronze, porcelain, glass and crystal, are supported by the luxury of the court. The working of jewellery is carried to great perfection; the natives excel in that and other branches of industry. Communications are sent to Petersburg from most of the scientific or learned institutions in Europe; many societies have been established, among others an academy of sciences, to which almost all the contributions have hitherto been written by Germans. Much has been done for the promotion of knowledge; many valuable libraries are now collected, and in no other town are there so many or so rare Chinese, Japanese and Mongol books. Theatres, assemblies, public walks and gardens connect the amusements of Petersburg with those of the other European capitals, but the only diversions for which the climate is well adapted, are sledge races and real *Russian mountains*, not of wood but of ice. All the pleasures and refinements of civilization have been introduced, but there is no place on the continent where the expense of living is so great.*

Neighbourhood of Petersburg.

Country houses and vegetable gardens, cultivated by the industrious peasants of Rostow, are gradually becoming more numerous in the neighbourhood of the town.

Palaces.

Czarskoe-Selo, an imperial castle, is differently described by Russian and French travellers; the former consider it another Versailles, the latter a model of barbaric art, both

* Description of Petersburg by Georgi, Storch, and Reimer. Picture of St. Petersburg by Muller. Bagatelles by Fabri.

BOOK CVIII.

these opinions are not incompatible. If we may judge of it from engravings, it appears to be an imitation of the ancient architecture that prevailed in France. Peterhof is surrounded by extensive gardens, fine streams and fountains, and near it is the Dutch house of Peter the Great.

Cronstadt.

Cronstadt, one of the fortified towns in Ingria, is situated on the island of *Kodloi-Ostrow*,* its population exceeds 30,000 souls, it possesses three ports and a convenient road, where large merchant vessels anchor, and their cargoes are forwarded to Petersburg in lighters. The same place is also a station for a division of the Baltic fleet; its fortress and the small fort of *Cronslot* guard the entrance of the gulf and the approach to the capital, which is not more than 47 versts or 31 miles distant from Cronstadt. *Schlusselburg*, a small fortress on the place where the Neva issues from the lake Ladoga, has been changed into a state prison, and it was the place where the unfortunate Ivan III. was confined and ended his days. *Gatschina*, a manufacturing town of seven thousand souls, is built on an imperial domain.

Narva.

The town of Narva, though situated in Esthonia, forms a part of the government of Petersburg. It was erected or fortified in 1223 by Valdemar the Second of Denmark, and became in time a Hanseatic town; the Germans still make up the greater number of its four thousand inhabitants. We observe there the Gothic architecture of the ancient German towns, and the ancient simplicity of the German manners. The burgesses were led into captivity by Peter the First in 1704, but they returned in 1718, when the most of their privileges were restored. The *Narowa* falls from the height of 12 feet at a short distance from Narva, and the cascade contrasts well with the flat and level country on every side.†

German provinces.

We have now to give an account of three provinces, which form physically and historically, as well as by the

* *Retu-Sari* is the Finnic name of the island.

† Herbinius de Cataractis, p. 253.

moral and political condition of their inhabitants, a distinct section from the Russian empire. Esthonia, Livonia and Courland are commonly called the German provinces. They were inhabited in the middle ages by Finnic nations or the Ehstes, the Lives and Krewines, and also by Wendo-Lettones or the Lettones proper, the Keures and Semigalles. The difference in their origin was the cause of perpetual contention between these weak tribes. It may be shown from their history that the Ehstes were united by a sort of confederacy, of which the councils were held at *Rongala*. The union was formed by the inhabitants of *Ungannia, Murumgonda, Saccala, Alentaken,** *Wirria,*† *Harria, Joervi,*‡ *Lappigunda* and *Rotalo*. The population of each district marched to the common defence of the frontiers, under the command of a *wana* or ancient; they were armed with clubs, swords and wooden bucklers. The Lives did not enter into a similar confederacy, and the Lettones invaded their country. The Koures or masters of maritime Courland, and of the islands Oesel and Dago, often pillaged the coasts of Scandinavia; and while the tribes were contending with each other, a career of enterprise and adventure was opened for neighbouring states.

Inhabitants.

Successive inhabitants.

These provinces have been successively subdued by five nations; their colonies are more or less numerous according to the time that the different conquerors were in possession of the country. But all the Russians, Poles, Danes and Swedes do not form a population equal to that of the Germans. The trading or commercial classes migrated from the Hanseatic towns, and the nobles or lords of the rural domains came originally from Westphalia and northern Germany. These nobles are, in their own estimation, far superior to the Russians, whom they have been compelled to admit into their order. It is for these reasons that all the free inhabitants are called *Deutsche* or Germans, while the peasants, who were lately slaves, are still *Un-Deutsche* or not Germans. These singular denominations took their rise in the time of the Teutonic knights.

* Low country. † The country of trees. ‡ The country of lakes.

BOOK CVIII.

Bremish expeditions.

The traders in the dutchy of Bremen, were the first who obtained any accurate information concerning Livonia. A Bremish vessel which sailed in 1158 for Wisby, a town in the island of Gothland, was driven by a tempest into the gulf of Riga, near the embouchure of the Dwina. The country was then inhabited by Lives, a rude people, with whom the strangers began to traffick. A Bremish colony settled afterwards amongst them, and founded the present town of Riga. The gospel was first preached to the natives by a missionary from Holstein about the year 1186. It cannot, on the other hand, be denied that these regions were visited by the Danes before the period last mentioned, or that they were known at an earlier age to the Scandinavian pirates by the names of *Austur-Rike*, and *Austurveg*.* The natives were sometimes termed *Grikia* or Greeks from the Russians of the Greek church, who began betimes to conquer the country, and exact tribute. It may be naturally inferred from the proximity of the Swedes, that they must have been among the first to extend their dominions in the same direction. But the most ancient document is a letter of Erik, king of Denmark, dated 1093, and still preserved in the archives of the Esthonian nobility. Canute the Sixth having subdued the Pomeranian Wendes, planned an expedition against Esthonia in the year 1196. The Archbishop *Absalon*, the great general of the army, gave his name to the town of *Habsal*, but the monarch conquered only the islands and part of the coast. Waldemar the Second or the Victorious, the brother and successor of the last prince, determined to connect these conquests with others made in Pomerania, and his ambitious projects were sanctified by the laudable pretext of converting the Livonians. The Pope sent him the famous *Danebrog*, a red and white banner, which became in time the palladium of Denmark, and the king undertook the crusade. The Danish army was tran-

Scandinavians.

* Austur-Rike means the kingdom of the east, and Austerveg a road into the east.

sported in a fleet of 1400 ships, of which the largest held a hundred and twenty, and the smallest fourteen soldiers. The battle of Wolmar was gained in 1220, and the whole of Livonia submitted to the victor, who baptized the inhabitants against their will. Prussia was afterwards converted in the same manner. Waldemar founded Narva, Revel and other towns; but the conquered countries recovered their liberty during his captivity from the year 1227 to 1230. The Danes retained however part of their possessions, the towns in Esthonia remained faithful, and the island of Oesel, their last settlement, was not ceded to Sweden before 1625.

Crusades on the Baltic.

While the Danes and Germans were subduing these barbarians, or converting them by force, the *Order of the Knights of Christ** was instituted, a society of which the members adopted at first the same regulations as the templars, and acknowledged the bishop of Riga as their head. So long as the armies of Waldemar were victorious, the knights were only considered the auxiliaries of the Danes. It is certain, however, that Albert, bishop of Riga, made over to them in 1206, a third part of Livonia, although it did not belong to him; the donation was ratified by the Pope in 1210. Winno, the first great master, styled the knights, the brethren of the sword, a name which was changed into that of *ensiferi* or sword-bearers; they were next denominated the knights of the cross. They entered into a solemn union with the Teutonic Order in 1238, and submitted to all their statutes. Thus historians have often confounded these two societies, both of which transported the spirit and chivalry of the crusades from the banks of the Jordan to the shores of the Baltic. It was then that the sandy plains of Livonia were called Idumea after a country bordering on Palestine.

Order of Knighthood.

The knights conquered Livonia and Courland between the years 1230 and 1240. Waldemar III. ceded to them

* The Order was instituted in 1201.

BOOK CVIII.

Esthonia in 1346, and the sovereignty of these states was purchased from the great master of the Teutonic Order by Walther of Plettenberg in 1551. The sword-bearers were, after that contract, included in the number of the imperial states. The reformation introduced much about the same time by Luther, penetrated into Livonia, and the new opinions tended to shake the power of the knights. The czar Iwan Wasiliewitch thought that a favourable opportunity had at last occurred, and he attempted the conquest of the provinces in 1550. The inhabitants of Narva and Revel, unable to resist the Russians, put themselves under the protection of Sweden. Gothard Kettler, the great master, ceded Livonia to the Poles, renounced his title, and became the first Duke of Courland in 1561, after having sworn fealty and homage to Poland. Thus terminated the petty empire founded by the sword-bearers, the men, say the monkish writers, that civilized Esthonia and Livonia, a correct assertion, if civilization is to establish a privileged caste, and to reduce the natives to the most disgraceful slavery.

Swedish wars.

The greatest misfortunes befel these countries after the subjugation of the knights. The spoils were the cause of discord between Muscovy, Sweden and Poland, and a hundred years of war and bloodshed elapsed before Sweden obtained Livonia and Esthonia by the treaty of Oliva in 1660. Courland remained subject to the Poles.

Russian Conquests.

The horrors of war were kindled anew in the 18th century, and the provinces were devastated when the Russians made themselves masters of them by the peace of Neustadt in 1721. The country had been governed sixty-one years by the Swedes, and although Charles XI. humbled the nobles, many of the Swedish laws continued in force; indeed, next to the changes effected by Luther's reformation and the influence of German literature, nothing has contributed so much to form the national character of the nobility, as the political institutions of Sweden. Russia, that had been long the terror of the inhabitants on account of its invasions, has since governed them with much

mildness. The privileges of the aristocracy have been for the most part respected; if the order is not exempt from the military service, that circumstance forms a solitary exception to the general rule. The towns have been enriched by trade, for which their situation is well adapted. The admirable education that the higher classes receive, has opened for them an easy access to the most important offices in the Russian administration and in the different governments. Enlightened by judicious study, protected by Alexander I, the nobles in the three dutchies of Esthonia, Livonia and Courland, have adopted the wisest and most philanthropic measures to bring the peasants from a state of bondage to civil liberty, to the condition of the other inhabitants, and to that moral melioration without which freedom itself must be vain.*

Physical geography.

The soil, the climate and the productions of the three provinces are nearly the same. Esthonia and the north of Livonia may perhaps, on account of their rocks and humidity, be compared to the *section of great lakes*, whilst Courland and the south of Livonia, abounding in sand and argil, resemble in a greater degree the *Sarmatian plains*. The whole country is low, and, to use a geological phrase, of the alluvial formation; many indications prove that it must have been covered at a comparatively recent period with the waters of the ocean. The highest hill, that of *Wesenberg* near the lake of Deven, is said to be 1200 feet, but it is by no means certain that it has been

Hills.

* Essai critique sur l'Histoire de la Livonie, &c. &c. par L. C. D. B. (the Count of Bray). The above excellent work renders others superfluous, but the different authors who have written on Esthonia and Livonia are mentioned, and their merits appreciated. A few of them may be cited. *Arndt*, Leiflands Chronik (1753) containing the translation of Henry the Letton, 1184—1225. Duisbourg's History of the Teutonic Order to the year 1326. *Russow* and *Kelch*, two able chroniclers. *Hiœrn's* History of Esthonia, Livonia and Lettonia. *Friebe's* Historical Manual, 1793. *Hupel's* Miscellanies of the North, 1781-91. *Merkel's* Ancient Times of Livonia, 1799. Much light has been thrown on the history of these provinces by the discovery of many manuscripts in Konigsberg and Livonia; whatever valuable information they contain, is embodied in the work of M. de Bray.

BOOK CVIII.

accurately measured. *Munna-Meggi* is about 1000, and none of the rest are higher than 500. *Blauberg*, a sacred hill of the Lives, commands an extensive view along the plains of Livonia, but its elevation is not greater than 360 feet above the level of the sea. A few picturesque dales, some grots and waterfalls may be discovered, but the general appearance of the land is that of a monotonous plain or a thick forest. Large beds of limestone, at some depth below the surface of the ground, extend throughout the provinces. The same rocks are seen on the gulfs of Riga and Finland, they are probably connected with those in Gothland near the middle of the Baltic, and also with others in Southern Finland. Blocks of granite are scattered in different parts of the country, and the low coasts form a belt of sand, on which rocks are occasionally observed. The climate is much milder than that of Petersburg or Novgorod, and the thermometer descends rarely so low as 14° of Reaumur, or zero of Fahrenheit; yet the rivers are covered with ice in March and part of April. May is in general a cold month, and sometimes accompanied with frost and snow. The first indications of winter are felt in September, and it is not often that a short summer elapses without chill and humid winds.

Climate.

Plants.

Pines, firs and birch trees thrive in the marshy forests; the white alder, the maple, the common and mountain ash succeed on the good land; the oak, however, is a rare tree, and the 58th parallel appears to be, in these countries, the natural limit of its growth. Many species of willows are very common;* but the linden is confined to Courland, the beech is seldom seen, the hawthorn, the elder, the walnut and chestnut are unknown. Bright flowers are disclosed in the late springs, but the natural grasses on the meadows are coarse and rank, and dismal mosses cover a great part of the plains. The plants which flourish on the marshes and stagnant water, are nearly the same as those in northern Jutland and

* De Bray. Essai Historique, II. 320.

Smoland. The *vaccinium oxycoccos* and *myrtillus* abound, strawberries, currants and fruit-bearing shrubs appear in equal profusion, but the cherries do not often ripen, and the apples, though plentiful, are of a bad kind; many are as transparent as those in the neighbourhood of Moscow, from which place they have probably been transplanted.* Rye, lint and flax yield good crops; little labour is bestowed on the culture of potherbs, and the peasants are ignorant of gardening.

Animals.

Hares, foxes, bears and wolves frequent the forests and brushwood, but the last animal is the most common and the most destructive of any; its extirpation would be of great advantage to the country. The elk wanders in the wooded or desert districts, and the heaths are well stocked with grouse, woodcocks and a variety of wild fowl. The salmon fisheries are the most productive; next to them may be mentioned those of the *Kulo-stræmling*, a species of small herring only found in the Baltic.

Lakes.

The large lake of *Peipus*, which forms one of the natural limits of the country, abounds in breams† and *salmo marænula*. The lake is about 75 miles in length and 37 in breadth; its banks are covered with sand, and the adjacent country is flat and unvaried. The *Werzierw* or *Werz* is the second in size, and the *Fehsten* and *Marienburg* are comparable to any in point of natural scenery.

Rivers.

Most of the rivers are small; the *Aa*, however, traverses nearly the whole of Livonia, and its Scandinavian name, which is common to other rivers, is little known in the country, the natives call it the *Goya*. The Narowa and its cascade have been already mentioned, the *Windau* forms another of 20 feet in Courland, and the fish in passing it are driven into the air, and fall in baskets arranged to receive them.‡

Duna.

The *Duna* or the western Dwina or the Lettonian *Drugowa* is the only large river; the length of its course from a lake on the heights of Wolchonski in the government of Tver,

* The transparency, says M. de Bray, is the effect of climate.

† Cyprinus latus.

‡ Georgi, Description de la Russie.

BOOK CVIII.

to its embouchure below Riga, is not much less than 1000 versts or 666 miles; but its channel is confined in many places by calcareous rocks. The peasants in White Russia never ascend it, and it is often difficult for them to descend in their *struzes* or barges. That obstacle is not the only one which diminishes the commercial utility of the river. It is shallow on the sandy plains of Livonia, and its streams are impeded by plants. M. de Bray collected on the Duna leaves of the *butomus umbellatus*, which were upwards of 22 feet in length; they were carried down the current in thousands, and obstructed the course of the boats.

Topographical details.

The dutchy of Esthonia is now changed into the government of Reval; the inhabitants amount, according to an approximate calculation, to 300,000, and of these the *Estes* make up five-sixths or nearly the whole peasantry, the remaining fraction is composed of the German nobility, some Russians, German burgesses and Swedish husbandmen.

The soil is not fruitful, the most of it is light or sandy, stony or marshy; still a great quantity of rye, barley, lint and flax is cultivated. The grain reaped in 1802, was not less, says M. Storch, than 931,530 *tshetverts*,* the consumption did not exceed 678,537, consequently the excess was equal to 252,993, which is proportionably much greater than the surplus crops in Livonia; but no general rule can be formed from the extraordinary harvests of 1802. The trade of the country is greater than formerly, and its imports are increased.

Towns.

The fortified town of Revel, founded in 1218 by the Danes in the time of Waldemar the Victorious, is situated in the ancient district of *Harria* or *Harenland*.† It was

* The tshetvert, or Russian malter, is equal to seven pouds and a half, or 300 lbs.

† Revel signifies a reef in Danish, and the town is called *Dani-Lin* or *Tallin*, the city of the Danes, by the Esthonians, Koliwan by the Russians, and *Dannu Pilss*, or the Danish castle, by the Lettonians.

once distinguished among the Hanseatic towns; its commerce, then very extensive, is still flourishing; many foreign vessels enter its harbour, which, though large, is difficult of access, it is also a station for a division of the Russian fleet. The town is peopled by 15,000 inhabitants, and the lower orders are employed in its large foundries, and distilleries. The public buildings are the Gothic cathedral and the *Baltisch-Port*, a rural palace in the imperial gardens of *Ekatarinendal*. The marine view from the last place is very extensive, but the opening is too great, it might require an immense dike to confine the inroads of the sea. The fortifications begun by Peter I. in 1719, and continued under Elizabeth and Catherine II. were abandoned in 1769. The station was then no longer necessary. The small town and convenient harbour of Habsal were founded by Absalom, a Danish archbishop and a famous general, who erected there the first cathedral in the diocese of Oesel, the ruins of the building still remain.

Livonia.

The ancient dutchy of Livonia is at present included in the government of Riga. It is peopled by more than 700,000 inhabitants, of whom 300,000 are Wendo-Lithuanian Lettons, and 340,000 Estes of Finnic origin. The northern districts are inhabited by the latter. The soil, unlike that of Esthonia, is not always of the same kind, there are a greater number of marshes, and also a greater number of plains. The grain harvest of 1802 yielded 1,523,748 tshetverts, and the consumption was not much less than 1,233,219. The exportation, considering the extent of the province, is inferior to that from Esthonia, but the population is more concentrated. The numerous distilleries form the most lucrative branch of the home trade, and the principal exports are flax and hemp. The forests are cleared in two ways, and both are equally ruinous to the country. The trees are sometimes cut and burnt, and the ground is afterwards tilled. The second method consists in labouring the land, and in covering it with trees brought from a distance. The fields are thus impregnated with

BOOK CVIII.

ashes, and produce the first year a rich harvest of wheat or excellent barley; a tolerable crop of rye is raised the second year, and a good crop of oats the third. They are sometimes sown the fourth and fifth years, but their produce always decreases, and after that period they are wholly useless for fifteen or twenty years. The hay is of a bad quality, all the meadows are inundated or covered with ice in winter.

Towns, Riga.

Riga, the capital of Livonia, is well fortified, it is situated on the northern banks of the Duna, at the distance of nine miles from its embouchure. The population in 1799 was equal to 27,798 individuals, but according to M. Storch it was not greater than 24,515 in 1815. That author, however, did not include the suburbs, the inhabitants of which may amount to ten or twelve thousand, the whole number, therefore, could not have been much less than 36,000. A large townhouse, erected in 1750, many fine churches and a wide and convenient harbour are the greatest ornaments of Riga. But the streets are narrow, and most of the houses are ill built. A number of boats on the Duna form what the Russians call the Living Bridge.

Trade.

The port is the second in the empire, and more than eleven hundred vessels sail to it every year. The exports consist chiefly of rye, barley, wheat, flax and lint, wax, honey, masts and different kinds of wood. Many foreign merchants are settled in the town, and all these articles are shipped in foreign vessels. The imports are not at present very valuable, but they might become so, if a canal were cut from the Dwina to the Wolga, by which a direct communication might be opened between Riga and central Russia. The manners, laws and customs of the place remind the stranger of a German town under the Hanseatic republick. The burgesses have a share in the profits of the custom-house, they maintain a hundred soldiers, a corps of artillery, and a fixed number of engineers. An arsenal has been assigned to them, and they have obtained on different occasions important privileges. Riga is surrounded with sand and marshes; the water of the Duna is turbid

and unwholesome; and the city, from the nature of its position, is sometimes inundated. The same town is considered a bulwark of the empire, and it proved in 1812 a barrier against the invasion of a French army, guided by the genius of Napoleon, until then unaccustomed to defeat. The fortifications are not very strong, and the place might have been easily taken, had not the army been weakened by severe hardships, and the soldiers discovered in the course of the campaign, that their leader was no longer invincible. Some other towns in Livonia may be shortly mentioned. *Wenden* or the Lettonian *Zehsis* was the ancient residence of the provincial masters of the Teutonic order. *Wolmar* derives its name from Waldemar II., king of Denmark, who gained there in 1220, a great victory over the Livonians. Dorpt, formerly a flourishing Hanseatic town, was wholly destroyed by the Russians in 1707. It has since that time been rebuilt of wood, and more than once burnt to the ground, calamities which have eventually contributed to its embellishment. It is at present peopled by 8500 individuals. Gustavus Adolphus founded there, and Paul re-established a German university for the people of Livonia, Esthonia and Courland. The inhabitants have thus been enlightened, knowledge and civilization have been diffused, and every important discovery made in Germany or the rest of Europe, has found its way into the three provinces. *Pernau* or, according to the meaning of the word, the town of lime trees, has a convenient harbour, and a hundred vessels laden with grain sail from it every year.

Fortifications.

University of Dorpat.

The government of Courland forms the frontier on the south of the Duna and the gulf of Riga, and extends on the west, like a promontory between the gulf of Livonia and the Baltic. It is only the last part which is strictly called Courland, the country of the *Coures* or *Kures*. The interior is known by the name of *Semigallia*, a word of which the first syllable is a corruption of *semme*, *same* or *suome*, a region or country, but it is difficult to determine the signification of the second.

Courland.

BOOK CVIII.

Climate. Productions.

Courland is the most agreeable and the most populous of the three dutchies; but the climate is severe and subject to dense fogs and sudden transitions from heat to cold. If the country near Windau and Goldingen be not included, the soil is every where rich, strong and argillaceous. Lint is the crop which succeeds best, and the province is much better cultivated than Livonia. The peasants, comparatively fortunate and intelligent, till their own land with greater care. All the grain raised in 1802 exceeded 1,444,764 *tshetverts*,* the quantity consumed equalled 1,168,930, consequently an excess of 275,834 was left. The population is greater than half a million, and not so widely scattered as in Livonia. The old *Koures* or the husbandmen make up nearly the whole number, almost all the nobles and burgesses are Germans. Two-thirds of the inhabitants profess the reformed religion; the remaining third or the most ignorant part of the community have been inveigled into catholicism by the Polish party; but since Poland has ceased to exist, few or no converts have been gained. The Jews are increasing rapidly, and the cause of the evil is imputed to the toleration which the czar affords them.

Towns.

Mittau, the capital of the province, and formerly the ducal residence, is situated on the Aa, which is called near its mouth the *Bulder-Aa*, and in the Lithuanian the *Lela-Uppe* or great river. The town is peopled by 12,000 inhabitants, it covers a large extent of ground, and the greater part of it is intersected by fields and gardens. The new castle in the neighbourhood was for some time a place of shelter for Louis XVIII. *Libau*, a trading town on the sea shore, contains 5000 inhabitants; its port is shallow, the houses are built of wood, and consist only of a single story. *Jacobstadt*, a small town on the Dwina, is the principal residence of the vagrants, who exhibit dancing bears in most of the European capitals.

* A tshetvert or seven pouds and a half is equal to 300 lbs.

The lake of *Sauken* in the parish of Jacobstadt, is about two geographical miles in length, and more than a half in breadth. It was formed, according to the common opinion, after the earth had sunk to a considerable depth, and ingulphed all the habitations in the vicinity. Such a calamity is not improbable, although the time in which it happened, cannot be ascertained. The fishermen find sometimes in their nets pieces of carved wood and other materials, which must have formed part of the houses; besides, such an event might have been expected, for the marshes, like those in Livonia and Lithuania, are often covered with a crust of peat or turf, which becomes gradually thick and hard, and affords at last a temporary support for the dwellings of men.

Sinking of the land.

The promontory of Domesnes, which extends between the gulf of Livonia and the Baltic sea, forms the northern extremity of Courland. The cape, though protected by a double pharos, is very dangerous to the mariners that repair to Riga.

Headland of Domesnes.

We observe a number of islands on the north of the promontory, which might be termed from their inhabitants, the Esthonian Archipelago; some of them, however, belong politically to Livonia. The Esthonians call them the *Sarri-Ma* or country of the islands. The climate is milder than on the continent, the sea breezes dispel the clouds, and a serene sky is not so rare a phenomenon as on the neighbouring coast. The autumns are more genial, the oak thrives, and the sheep are covered with a finer wool. Runa, a calcareous rock covered with a vegetable mould, is the nearest to Cape Domesnes. It is peopled by a petty tribe of Swedes or ancient Scandinavians, and their dialect is confined to the island. The Oesel or the Esthonian *Kurri-Saar*, the *island of cranes*, is next to Zealand, the largest of any on the Baltic. The calcareous strata that form its base, are in many places covered with sandstone, and the appearance of the country is diversified by lofty forests, lakes and rivulets. The inhabitants, though rude, are not indolent; many cultivate the ground, others fish for the sea

Esthonian Archipelago.

Island of Oesel.

BOOK CVIII.

dog, or roam in quest of wrecks. The fishermen are good swimmers and divers, but by no means remarkable for their honesty. *Arensburg*, the principal town in Oesel, contains 1400 inhabitants. The island of *Dago* or *Dag-œ*, the Esthonian *Hio-ma*, lies to the north of the last; it abounds in wood, and although the western part is sandy, it is not unfruitful; rich meadows, orchards and gardens extend on the east. Some Swedish and free husbandmen are settled on the island, but the Esthonians, who are more numerous, were long degraded by slavery; still, many are good mechanics and able shipwrights, watch-makers and jewellers. The island of *Worms* is peopled by a colony of Swedes, who have retained their ancient dialect.* The total population of the Archipelago is nearly equal to 50,000 souls.

Dago.

Inhabitants of the provinces.

The difference in the manners and customs of the people that inhabit the three provinces, arises naturally from the difference in their origin and condition. The light of knowledge diffused over northern Germany is imparted to the nobles, the most of whom are Germans and members of the reformed church. The aristocracy is not wealthy, but the youth are diligent, and their great merit in all the offices of public trust may be the result of their education and the fact that superiority of merit is their only claim for preferment. Those who remain at home, improve their estates, and contend against all the disadvantages of a rigorous climate. The greatest obstacles have given way to their perseverance; their lands are becoming every year more productive, hospitality reigns in their peaceful dwellings and in the ancient castles where the Teutonic knights held their disgraceful orgies. The nobles are no longer ignorant and rude warriors, but well informed and learned men. Some cultivate the fine arts, the greater number have good libraries, and, though far from the noise or amusements of towns, the nature of their pursuits is the best antidote against the evils of solitude. A German

Nobility.

* Grunert, Notices sur les iles Oesel et Dago, a memoir in the transactions of the Economical Society of Petersburg.

writer confesses he never heard his language spoken with such purity or harmony as by the Livonian ladies, who are at least as well educated as those in other countries. Their piety is sincere, because it is founded on gospel truth; some are perhaps tinged with enthusiasm, the failing of the understanding, not of the heart. It was a Livonian lady that first formed the idea of an holy alliance, but it ought to be observed in justice to Madam Krudener, that the name was the only part of her plan which the high contracting powers did not change. That extraordinary person fell into mysticism during the last years of her life, but her original scheme, had it been adopted, might have more effectually conciliated kings to their subjects, and subjects to their kings, disarmed revolutionary faction, and connected political with moral institutions. We learn with regret that the Moravian brothers have diffused more of cant and hypocrisy than true religion in Livonia.* The higher classes are free from these vices, and it might be difficult to find any order of men in the civilized portion of the Russian empire, so distinguished by their virtue and knowledge as the nobles in Esthonia, Livonia and Courland.

Burgesses.

The wars between Sweden and Russia were the cause of many calamities and changes in Riga, Revel and other towns of the same description; but the burgesses still adhere to their wise institutions, they are not less industrious, their municipal patriotism is not abated. Their habits of economy are not incompatible with urbanity or refinement, and all the useful seminaries and charitable establishments have been founded by citizens. We are persuaded that a stranger might discover in their towns whatever is most worthy of admiration in Lubeck, Bremen or Strasburg.

Peasantry.

The native husbandmen of Finnic and Lithuanian origin form a third class of inhabitants. The Swedish peasantry are not numerous, they are confined to a few islands,

* De Bray, III. p. 117.

BOOK CVIII.

and are easily distinguished from the mass by their comparative affluence and civil liberty. The Finns and Wends, once the masters of their native soil, have been degraded by slavery for the last six hundred years. It is long since they despaired of breaking their chains, their hopes are no longer fixed on the earth, and heaven is supposed to be the country of the free.

Esthonians.

The Esthes inhabit, besides the province to which they have given their name, the most of the islands, and all the northern half of Livonia. It appears from the archives of the nobles, that Esthland is the correct name of the country, but it is more commonly termed Esthonia throughout the rest of Europe. The natives themselves call it *Esti-Ma*, but slaves, it is said, have no voice in such discussions. It is certain that the Estheans or Esthes inhabited formerly the regions on the south, and were the same as the *Æstii* of Tacitus, and the *Esti* of Jornandes; their country corresponded too with the Estum of the Scandinavian travellers. These Finnic tribes settled in the north, and were at an early period exposed to the incursions of the Danes, the inroads of the Lettonians, and the more durable invasions of the Germans. The Danes tried to establish the worship of Thor, the Lettonians introduced their dialect, and the Germans overturned the sacred trees, stone altars and wooden idols. The Esthonian, like all the other Finns, has resisted the influence of these changes with rare success; he retains his yellow hair and all the features characteristic of his race. However indulgent the peasant girls may be to their countrymen, their conduct towards the Germans is most exemplary. If any yield to the temptation of gold, they are banished from the society of their village. The hatred of slaves against a dominant caste is not the only barrier between the Germans and Esthonians, another and as powerful an obstacle is the language of the latter, which differs little from the other Finnic tongues. The Esthonian is divided into the dialects of Revel or Harenland, Dorpt or Ungannia, and Oesel or Kure-Saar. The na-

Language.

tional and popular songs are written after the Finnic style, in other words, alliteration and metre are equally essential. Many of the ballads have been collected by the ingenious Herder, they illustrate the simplicity of a rude people, and the gloom and misery inseparable from slavery. The harmony of the language consists in sonorous and well-combined vowels, but it is fettered by a plaintive and tedious prosody, imitating perhaps the accents of oppression. The Esthonians are not insensible to the charms of music. While one of their bands, say the chroniclers, invested a strong castle in the thirteenth century, a monk played the harp from a rampart, and the besiegers withdrew from the siege.* Several ancient customs might be mentioned, but it is difficult to distinguish such as are of native origin from others introduced by the conquerors. The god *Tara-Pyha* has been compared to the Thor of the Scandinavians, yet the former divinity was represented under the form of a bird, which appeared on the sacred mount of *Thorapilla* or *Tara-Pyha* in the ancient province of *Wirria*, and flew sometimes to the great sanctuary in the island of Chori or Oesel. It is not easy to reconcile that fact with the supposition of a Scandinavian mythology. The most distant nations, the *Greeks* and the *Spaniards*, says Adam of Bremen, consulted the oracle in the island of *Chori*.† The Scandinavians would have also gone thither, had Thor been the god of the sanctuary. Although Thursday was consecrated to Thor and Thara, it is by no means a proof of their identity. *Joumala* was the generic name of the beneficent divinities, and *Weles* was applied exclusively to the wicked principle and its emanations. Some evil spirits were also called *Raggana*, but the characteristic of the Esthonian worship consisted in the adoration of rivers, mountains, high trees, plants and ani-

Religion.

* Merkel, die Vorzeit Liefland, I. p. 248.

† Adamus Bremensis, c. ccxxiii.

BOOK CVIII.

mals.* Their superstition was not wholly destroyed after the establishment of Christianity. Idolaters used to repair in the last century to *Wohhanda*, a rivulet of which the fresh and limpid source was encompassed with a sacred hedge; no sacrilegious hand dared to trouble its water, and the axe never approached the trees that obscured it with their shade. The brook, after it was enlarged by others, was called the *Pæha-Ioggi* or sacred stream, and to obstruct or alter its course was to invoke on the land all the scourges of the divine wrath. A noble erected a mill on the river, but an insurrection was the consequence, the profane building was levelled with the ground, and the revolt was with difficulty repressed by a strong military force. The Catholic traditions are blended with the obscure recollections of paganism. When the festival of St. John is held, it is often accompanied with dancing and rural mirth. The peasants meet round the ruins of any chapel consecrated to the saint, and it is not uncommon to see some engaged in prayer or in the dance, while others are feasting or offering sacrifices.† Gifts are still deposited in the darkness of the night on consecrated stones, and the peasantry, though admonished by their pastors, carry food and a few dried sticks to the graves of their relatives.‡

Sacred fountains and rivers.

Catholic Traditions.

The celebrated Herder, who lived in the country, and collected many popular songs, relates the following anecdote on the power of superstition. A young village girl dreamed of her arrival in *Jabmen-Aimo*, the country of the dead, there she met her parents, and desired eagerly to remain with them for ever. One of the *souls* advised her to retire into the recess of a forest, to abstain from nourishment, and to rest against a tree, in this way her wish would soon be gratified, and she herself might

* Bull of Innocent the Third in the year 1199. See Gruber Orig. Livon. p. 205.

† Merkel, Vorzeit Leifland's, 1. 174.

‡ Livonia and Esthonia, 1. 479. (a German work by Petri.)

live always with her mother. The dream did not end with her sleep, and the impression was strengthened by many visions that appeared in the solitary places to which she led her flock. Her friends were informed of these unearthly visions and of her intention to obey the repeated advices given by the *souls*. It was judged necessary to confine her, but she made her escape, and was not found during some days. When at last discovered, she was resting against a tree, her head was sunk on her breast, her arms were immovable, and her eyes closed. Still life was not wholly extinct, and it was preserved for a season by the kindness of her relatives. Having recovered the power of speech, she deceived her guardians, fled anew, and concealed herself in the least accessible part of the forest. Her brother, after a long and fruitless search, observed her in the position enjoined by the shades, but her wishes were by that time fulfilled, she was then an inmate of the other world.

Holy places.

We might enumerate among the holy places, the citadel of *Oden-Poeh*, or the *sanctuary of the bear*, the river of *Embach* or *Emma-Ioggi*, the *mother of water*, and a number of lakes, springs, hills and caverns. The Egg Mountain is still venerated, and the weather is often predicted by the mists that rise from a spring on its eastern declivity.

Monuments.

Many curious monuments raised before the introduction of Christianity still remain, but it is not likely that they were erected by the Esthonians. Such are the ancient strong castles where the people met to defend themselves against the Teutonic Knights. That of Warbola has been fully described by a Livonian writer; it consists partly of a very large rampart formed by masses of granite laid above each other without lime or any other kind of cement. The two entrances bear the marks of modern workmanship, but the enclosure forms an irregular oval of 800 paces in circumference, and from 200 to 250 in diameter. The thickness of the walls may be about 30 or 36 feet, and they are higher or lower in some places than in

BOOK CVIII.

others, according to the elevation of the ground.* That fortified post is not far from the sea, and others similar to it are situated in the island of Oesel, but none have hitherto been discovered on the eastern frontier towards Russia, or on the southern near the Lettonians. Thus it is not improbable from their position, that they were the works of the Scandinavians. The Swedish and Danish expeditions in the heroic ages might have been preceded by many other invasions in the fabulous times, and the Goths might have settled on these shores before they entered Scandinavia. It is certain from what is known of the Lettonians, the neighbours and enemies of the Ehstes, that the latter could not have erected such works. The fortifications raised in the 12th century by the Lettons were wholly composed of earth, and so ignorant were they of more solid buildings, that they attempted to pull down with ropes a castle founded by the Teutonic knights. It has been supposed that the ancient monuments in these countries served as forts to the sovereigns of *Polotzk*, a kingdom peopled by Goths and Slavonians, which was called Paltescia by the writers in the middle ages. If a line of similar ruins were traced along the Duna, the hypothesis might be confirmed. The *Cyclopean* walls in Livonia are well deserving the attention of antiquaries, but the want of information prevents us from arriving at any conclusion concerning their origin.

Kangers.

"The two *kangers*," says a writer of the country, are immense dikes raised by the Lives to form a communication between fertile districts separated by marshes and lakes.† M. de Bray, who examined the large kanger, gives a different and more correct account of it. "It is not an artificial but a natural road of more than ten miles in length. As its distance is so great, it may be readily admitted by those acquainted with the country, that it does not form a straight line. It consists chiefly of sand,

* Memoir by the Count of Mellin in *Hupel's Nordische Miscellanéen*, Number 17.

† Boerger, Versuch über die Alerthumer Lieflands, p. 78.

but also of calcareous and granite rocks, which rise in some places to the height of sixty feet above the marshes that limit it on each side. The road extends on the summit or narrowest part of that singular elevation, which becomes gradually broader, and the base varies from twelve to twenty feet in breadth. The two sides are covered with the *pinus abies* and *sylvestris*, the *populus tremula* and the *rubus saxatilis*. It is absurd to attribute such works to human efforts; had the Lives wished to open a communication between the marshes, a road not more than two feet above their surface might have answered the purpose, indeed many of that description have been made in Livonia. It was unnecessary to raise a hill, or to prolong the distance by useless windings. The kanger is not the work of the Lives but of nature, who in one of her capricious moods formed that long and narrow mass of sand and earth, which extends in the direction of *Sunzel* beyond the marshes. It is a dismal and dreary view from both sides of the great kanger, the sterile and desert fens below it reach to the utmost verge of the horizon. Other works of the same kind have been observed in different parts of Livonia and Esthonia. A similar and very lofty *kanger* is situated on the estate of Jendel, which belongs to the provincial judge of Lowenstern; many fine walks have been cut on the summit by the proprietor, and they are encompassed with woods, meadows and lakes."* It may be added in confirmation of M. de Bray's opinion, that we have lately seen a Swedish traveller, who observed more than twenty of these natural dikes throughout the central ridge of Carelia, Savolax and Tavastland, they were composed of the same rocks, and although used as roads, some parts of the summits were hardly broad enough for a man to pass on horseback.

Calendars.

The people in the island of Oesel have calendars, which serve every ordinary purpose, and the divisions and marks

* De Bray, Essai historique, t. I. 77.

BOOK CVIII.

are the same as those on the Runic staves of the Scandinavians.*

Character of the Esthonians.

The Esthonians are strong and active, but in general below the middle size; though cheerful and patient, they are degraded by the vices inherent in slavery; still the dignity of their nature is not wholly lost, they submit reluctantly to insults and arbitrary punishments. Their tendency to revolt and to avenge their wrongs is in their present condition a proof of magnanimity and virtue. The good qualities of the people are now appearing, the laws are milder, their masters less rigid, useful institutions more common, and the system of education greatly improved.

Lettons or Lettonians.

The Lettons, like the Koures and Semigalli formed a part of the *Wendo-Lithuanians*, who have been sometimes confounded with the Finno-Huns, but their language, dialects, religion and superstitions were different. These differences shall be fully considered in another section, and we shall give at present some account of the people that inhabit southern Livonia. "They are all," says M. de Storch, "barbarians and slaves, and most of them struggle for the means of subsistence. Their stature is very short, many of the women might be considered dwarfs. The Lettonian peasants are not able to raise or bear so heavy weights as the Germans, but they can endure greater fatigue, and are less affected by cold, heat or moisture. They do not require so much sleep, and resist better the effects of too much or too little food. The immoderate use of ardent spirits does not appear to be so deleterious to them as might be imagined. The Letton, like the Russian, uses warm baths, and passes from excessive heat to the open air. Rheumatism and other diseases of the same kind are unknown in the country."

The common opinion concerning the moral inferiority of the Lettons, their abject servility and barbarism, is in many respects incorrect. A clergy more attentive to the religious instruction of the people, more numerous schools,

* Hupel's Nachrichten, t. IV. p. 538.

and above all, the civil rights conferred on the peasantry, have placed them higher in the scale of civilization. The present Courlanders are of the same origin, and they are nowise inferior to the Esthonians.

Lettonian superstitions.

The superstitions of the country people are of a singular character. When the cuckoo is heard before breakfast for the first time in the spring, it is a bad omen, a sign of famine or poverty during the rest of the year.* Many take the precaution of breakfasting in that season before they enter the fields, or commence their day's labour. The same danger exists, and the same precautions are used about the time that the lapwing arrives in the country. If a hare or a fox passes the road on which a man is travelling, some disaster is about to happen, but if a wolf crosses him, it is a sign of good fortune. If a woman or a girl be the first person that a hunter meets on leaving his cottage, it is an unlucky omen, but it may be averted. The hunter returns home, departs again, and, if the first person that meets him is a boy or a man, he prepares for the chase. Such superstitions were common in Denmark and Sweden, and the great Tycho-Brahe was not wholly exempt from them. When a Lettonian means to fish in a river, he must not communicate his project to any one, otherwise he is not likely to have much amusement. But if two agree to go together, a third person may be apprized of their intention

* Some peasants in different parts of England still consider it unlucky to hear the cuckoo before they have seen the swallow. Milton alludes to another and more poetical superstition of the same kind, in his beautiful sonnet to the nightingale:

> Thy liquid notes that close the eye of day,
> First heard before the shallow cuckoo's bill,
> Portend success in love. O if Jove's will
> Have link'd that amorous pow'r to thy soft lay,
> Now timely sing, ere the rude bird of hate
> Foretel my hopeless doom in some grove nigh;
> As thou from year to year hast sung too late
> For my relief, yet hadst no reason why:
> Whether the Muse, or Love call thee his mate,
> Both them I serve, and of their train am I.
>
> MILTON, Sonnet I.

without inconvenience. If a fisherman lays his rod on the ground, and any one steps over his line, that line is wholly useless, no more fish can afterwards be taken with it. The peasant does not permit his friend to commend his possessions, his flocks or poultry, his grain or provisions. Whatever is much praised, is likely to be destroyed, a notion that appears to have been common to the Greeks, and inculcated in the worship of Nemesis.

Other ancient traditions are not wholly unconnected with physical geography and climatology. The summers in which flies are more than usually abundant, are succeeded by plentiful harvests of black wheat, *(polygonum fagopyrum)* and rainy summers are predicted as often as the plum tree of St. Lucia *(prunus padus)* is covered with blossoms. It is customary before a cottage is built, to examine what sort of ant is common in the neighbourhood. The common large ant *(Formica rufa, Linn.)* is not unlucky; but if it happens to be the small brown ant, *(Formica rubra, Linn.)* a different site must be chosen.

BOOK CIX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Fifth Section. Central Provinces or Great Russia.

BOOK CIX.

Preliminary remarks.

THE southern, eastern and northern regions of European Russia have been already described, and we have observed in these widely different regions, magnificent cities and frightful solitudes, marble palaces and clay cottages, the noise and confusion of capitals, the quiet and stillness of the desert, the Tartar reposing near his Crimean vineyard, and the Laplander braving all the rigour of a polar winter. But we have only observed the Russians in the character of rulers, nay even of strangers in their own dominions. The countries which we have now to mention are really Russian, the nation is collected in the central provinces, that nucleus of the empire, where the traveller may hear the language, and observe the manners and customs of Russia. Central Russia comprehends the government of *Novgorod*, *Tver*, *Pleskow*, *Polotzk* or *Vitepsk* and Smolensko round the Waldaic ridge, *Iaroslavl*, *Vladimir*, *Kostroma* and *Nischney-Novgorod* on the Wolga, *Moscow*, *Kaluga*, *Toula*, *Orel*, *Riæzan*, *Tambof* and *Penza*, or the countries from which the Oka, the Don and the Desna take their rise; and lastly, the governments of *Kursk* and *Woronesch*, (Voronez) which join the plains of the Ukraine. The superficies of the whole

BOOK CIX.

territory is not less than 50,720 square leagues, and the population is equal to twenty-four millions. The four governments of Little Russia shall be examined in another section, their climate is milder, and they are inhabited by nations of a different origin.

Central ridge.

The central region is formed by a lofty plain on the sides of the Baltic, Poland and the Black and Caspian Sea. The Volgaic hills in the government of Saratof, the falls of the Dneister, the heights of Smolensko, and the Waldaic chain determine its elevation in the four directions which we have mentioned. It must not, however, be imagined that geographers are in possession of sufficient materials to enable them to trace the limits of the ridge, or to ascertain its highest points. The forest of *Volchonski** near the sources of the Wolga and the Duna, between Ostaschkof and Toropez, is supposed to be 1300 feet above the level of the sea, but no part of it is very acclivous or rugged; on the contrary, it is a gently sloping plain, which may probably account for the name of *Visokaia Plotska*, that has been given it by the natives.† But the rivers and the deeply indented lakes are encompassed by steep banks of slate, gypsum and limestone mixed with shells. Masses and blocks of granite are scattered on the surface; different geologists consider them the monuments of a deluge, or the boundaries of an ancient sea, or rocks once enclosed in floating ice, and transported by the ocean to their present position. The last hypothesis, however ingenious, is not very probable, and we believe that they were formed, like all other rocks, on the place which they occupy. The high country between the Duna and the Dneiper is composed of the same substances. But calcareous hills appear in the direction of Orel, small and ill-defined chains extend towards the sources of the Oka, the Don, the Sura and the Choper, and are confounded near Samarskoi-Lug with the line of hills on the Wolga. Banks

Height of Volchonski.

Calcareous hills.

* It is the *Volchonskoi-Bor* of Nestor, and the Russian authors suppose it the Alaunus Mons of Ptolemy.

† Visokaia Plotska signifies a high valley.

of chalk rise like islands at some distance to the south, and terminate in steep promontories from two to three hundred feet in height. The same substance predominates in some plains in the Ukraine, and in the government of Voronez. Beds of flint are scattered in limestone mixed with shells, and granite rises through all the rocks in the south; but it cannot be affirmed that it forms part of a low chain, which might serve to fix the limits of the ridge towards the basin of the Black Sea. We are also unable, from want of sufficient information, to give a correct account of the ridge Wolchonski on the north. Granite is observed on the calcareous hills of Waldai, but none of them are higher than 350 feet, and the basin of the Ladoga is separated from the Wolga by these low heights. A loftier ridge is situated in the country on the north-east, near the lakes of Bielo-Osero and Kubenskoi; its elevation, according to recent and hitherto unpublished observations, is in some places upwards of 1000 feet. It terminates at the base of the Ural, from which, as we have already seen, the Kama and Wialka take their source. The greater part of the plain on the north of Iaroslavl, is covered with marshes, and is not very different both in height and in the nature of the soil from the valleys in the governments of Moscow and Wladimir, or from those in Kaluga and Tula. That part of the valley on the central Wolga, which separates the two table lands, is about three or four hundred feet above the Caspian. The Oka or principal river in the government of Moscow, passes through no steep declivity in any part of its long course; even in Riæzan, where it winds between fruitful hills, its tranquil streams water low valleys, and unite with the Wolga. But the land on the right of the Oka beyond Murom rises visibly, a fact which might be otherwise proved by the rapid course of the Telscha. That high country is situated on the south of Nischney Novgorod, and the west of Simbirski; it is bounded on the north-east, the east and the south-east by the great eastern winding of the Wolga, which is ge-

Chalk banks.

Hills of Waldai.

Ridge on the north-east.

Wolgaic chain.

BOOK CIX.

nerally, but incorrectly called the *Wolgaic chain.* It is only a comparatively steep part of the table land, formed by strata of calcareous slate, gypsum, alabaster, argil and sandy marl. The highest hills are not more than 300 feet above the Wolga. The slow-moving *Sura* and the almost stagnant course of the *Zna* in Tambof, prove that the country is low near their source. Such is all the information which we have been able to collect concerning the boundaries and configuration of central Russia.

Climate, four zones.

The climate of these plains may be divided into four zones. The governments of Novgorod, Tver, Pleskow, Vitepsk and Smolensko are, from the elevation of their soil, exposed to a much more rigorous climate than the Livonian provinces. The rivers are generally frozen from the 20th of November to the 1st of April. The winter of 1812, which accelerated the destruction of the French army, already weakened by want of food and by murderous contests, was not more than usually severe. Secondly, the governments of Iaroslavl, Vladimir, Kostroma and Nischney Novgorod are, on account of their lower level, more temperate, although they are partly situated on the same latitude as the five governments in the Wolchonskian ridge; still the difference consists more in the greater heat of summer than in the shorter duration of winter. The rivers are long frozen, the autumns and springs are more humid and variable. The country may be better adapted for the cultivation of hemp and flax, but it is not perhaps so healthy. Thirdly, the central mass of the ridge, which includes the governments of Moscow, Kaluga, the northern part of Orel, Riæzan, Tambof and Penza, is still milder, though more variable and moist than the two preceding zones. A temperature below 16 or 20 of Fahrenheit is a rare phenomenon at Moscow; excessive heat is not so common, and the winters, like those at Petersburg, are occasionally interrupted by storms or impetuous winds, that last sometimes fifteen days. Still the thermometer, on an average of the whole year, descends almost

as many days below the freezing point, as it rises above it.* The season in which the ice on the rivers begins to melt, proves the progression of cold towards the east. Thus the climate of Riæzan, Penza and Tambof, is not so mild as might have been expected from the latitude. Lastly, the temperature is much more genial in the southern part of Orel. The summers are less variable, and the springs earlier in the governments of Kursk and Voronez. But even these provinces on the fiftieth parallel, are for a short time exposed to the cold winters of Moscow, and the open plains afford a free passage to the frozen winds from the Uralian mountains. The plants in Kursk and Voronez are different; coniferous trees become less common, and the tapering summits of the pine give place to the wide-spreading branches of the oak. The herbage is more nutritive, the meadows are enamelled with flowers, and the cattle are larger and stronger.

Plants and trees.

It appears from the researches of different statistical writers, that pines, firs and other trees of the same sort are most numerous within the fifty-seventh parallel; the birch, the *populus tremula* and the lime extend to 54° or 55°; the oak is thickly scattered on the central ridge, and although it thrives best about 51° or 52°, many are large and lofty in the valley of the Wolga near the 55th degree. The Russian, like the Canadian oak, is not remarkable for its solidity; the other trees in the same forests are the *Acer Tartaricum* or Russian maple, the white poplar and hornbeam. The beech, though not rare in Livonia, is seldom seen in Smolensko, and does not succeed beyond the plains of Little Russia. The climate of the central ridge is too cold for the chestnut and walnut.†

Forests.

Many naval yards are supplied with timber from the forests in the north-west of central Russia; but lofty firs

* Reaumur's thermometer was 155 days below zero in 1790, and 177 days in the following year.

† Georgi, Description de la Russie, partie botanique.

BOOK CIX.

and larches are less common beyond that region; the woods to the south of Moscow, particularly in Kursk and Orel, are not so extensive, and in some places they are already exhausted. Besides the trees that are cut for ship-building and fire wood, the peasants obtain turpentine from others, and tar and lampblack from pines and firs. The bark of the birch is used in tanning, and made into round boxes, in which caviar, fruits and butter are preserved. The leaves of the same tree afford a yellow dye, and the sap which exudes from it in spring is changed into a slightly acid and agreeable beverage. The lime is used to greater advantage in Russia than in other countries; its bark supplies sufficient materials for baskets, trunks and the roofs of houses, and the tender bark of the young lime is plaited into shoes, which are worn by the peasantry. The wood is burnt for potashes, or used in building river boats, and swarms of bees extract honey from the flowers.

Agriculture.

Late rye, early barley and oats are more generally cultivated on the high plains than other kinds of grain. Wheat is exposed to vernal frosts, and sometimes blasted by mildew. The *Ledianka* is the only variety of wheat that is suited for the country. The common manner of burning the forests in Finland, is not unknown on the frontiers of Moscow, and no better proof need be adduced of the poverty of the soil and the severity of the climate. The ordinary plough is seldom used in the south from want of oxen, a lighter instrument is substituted, which only grazes the land, and is easily drawn by a single horse. The peasants are indolent, and agriculture is neglected in Great Russia; indeed slaves are never eager to labour for the exclusive profit of their masters. The Russian method of drying wheat has been adopted in northern countries. Wooden cottages are built, poles are placed across them, and apertures, which may be shut as occasion requires, are made in their sides. A large stove is erected in the immediate vicinity, and tubes pass from it to the building. The sheaves are suspended on the poles, a slow fire burns in the stove, and the smoke and vapour from the moist grain, escape by the openings.

Method of drying wheat.

The form of these buildings varies in different provinces, but the custom is general, and not without many advantages. Although the grain is thus rendered smaller, it is effectually preserved against the ravages of the weevil, and retains its nutritive qualities a longer time. The culture of flax and hemp is more productive and better understood than any other in central Russia.

Fruit trees.

Apples and different kinds of fruit are imported into the capitals and large towns, but such articles are not required in these provinces. The German writers suppose erroneously that the orchards are of little value, and ill cultivated by the inhabitants. It is true that the former have become more important, and the latter more industrious within the last thirty years. The different species of apples, which grow in central Russia, were brought from Astrakhan, Persia and Kabardia. The European kinds are rare. The apple of *Kirevsk*, though very large, is agreeable to the taste, some of them weigh more than four pounds. The transparent apple thrives in the governments of Vladimir and Moscow; it is said to have been imported from China, but many consider it indigenous to the Crimea; it is so permeable to light that the seeds are seen through it. A great quantity of fruit is raised in the governments of Kaluga and Riæzan, and the making of cider, or the culture of apples forms an important branch of industry. Annual fairs are held in the towns of Kaluga and Simbirsk, from which the fruits are exported to the southern provinces. But the abundance is merely local, for apples and pears are every year imported by the Baltic into the northern provinces. The quantity sent in 1794 to Petersburg only, was sold for 122,000 roubles.* The woods of wild apple trees do not extend beyond the forty-ninth parallel, consequently the extensive orchards on the banks of the central Wolga and Oka, must have been raised by the inhabitants. As the European sorts, which are

Asiatic apples.

* A sum nearly equal to L.25,417.

BOOK CIX.

common in Little Russia, are not cultivated, it could not have been the Great Russians, during their dispersion from south-west to north-west, but the Finns or rather the Tartars, whose descendants are now confounded with the other inhabitants, that transplanted the fruits of Asia in these countries. The cherry and plum tree grow spontaneously within the 55th parallel. Whole forests of the first are scattered through the government of Voronez, and their culture in some places of central Russia, particularly in Vladimir, is the only means by which many gain a subsistence. The fruit, however, has not been much improved by cultivation, there are not more than two or three species, and these are little larger than wild cherries. Horticulture is generally neglected, but cabbage thrives throughout the provinces, and asparagus in the neighbourhood of Moscow. It is not a little extraordinary that the gardeners of Rostow in the government of Iaroslavl, are superior to any in Europe; although unaided by the lights of science, and without resources, contending against a rigorous climate, they supply Petersburg and Moscow with all kinds of early vegetables. It is probable that they are the descendants of a foreign colony, the real Russian gives himself little trouble about such pursuits.

Horticulture.

Gardeners of Rostow.

Animal kingdom.

The animal, like the vegetable kingdom in central Russia, is not of a distinct character. The rein deer and the camel, though not found within the region, approach its utmost limits on the north and the south. The other quadrupeds in the neighbouring countries exist in the different governments. The bear, the wolf, the glutton, the squirrel, the hare and the roebuck are most numerous in the forests. The fallow deer does not exist in the country, or at all events, is very rare. The elk agrees with the climate, but it avoids the hunter, and seeks safety in the most inaccessible forests. The urus has disappeared, and the stag has decreased in number. The *sorex moschatus*, the *mus decumanus*, the Russian marmot and the *mus cricetus* abound in the barren plains on the east of Voronez

and the Oka. The domestic animals are for the most part of an inferior kind; the ox is thin and bony, the sheep is covered with a coarse wool, but a fine fur is obtained from the lamb, and many of these animals are slain for the sake of their skin, when not more than one or two days old. We have already spoken of the hardy patience of the Finnic, and the swiftness of the Cossack horse; these good qualities are united in a less degree in the Russian horses. It is astonishing how much the Russian horses resemble each other, notwithstanding the difference of climate, food and keeping. They may be known by their prominent heads, large shoulders and broad chests; the rest of the body is well enough proportioned. They can support long journeys, but many are timid and not easily broken.

Horses.

The government of Novgorod may, from its cold and sterility, be compared to Ingria; its extensive deserts on the north-east, join those of Wologda and Olonetz. Winter begins fifteen days earlier at Bielo-Osero and Kyrilow than at Petersburg, and even the country near the town of Novgorod, is neither fruitful nor well cultivated. More hemp and flax are raised than what is consumed by the people, but the fisheries and forests, which make up a fifth part of the whole territory, are the principal resources of 900,000 inhabitants. The town of *Weliki* Novgorod or Great Novgorod, covers a large extent of land on both banks of the Wolchowa. The part on the left of the river, is called the *Side* of *Sophia* from the principal church, which, together with the archbishop's palace and the barracks, is situated within the *kremlin* or citadel, and surrounded by a few old and detached houses. The other part on the right of the river, is the residence of merchants and retail traders. Both quarters are united by a bridge, and they contain about 1540 houses, 63 churches, (some of which are built in the suburbs) and nearly 10,000 inhabitants. Novgorod was a rich and powerful republick in the twelfth and thirteenth centuries; its dominions extended to the White Sea, and it disputed the possession of Finland with the Swedes. The date of

Government of Novgorod.

History of the town of Novgorod.

BOOK CIX.

its origin is very ancient, the people of the north repaired to it in the first ages of the vulgar era, and the Russian historians assure us that it was a flourishing town long before the entrance of the Slavonians into the country. It was inhabited so early as the ninth century by princes tributary to the great dukes of Russia. The first bishop was chosen in 998, and a revolution, a proof at least of some degree of civilization, took place in 1135. The monarchy then became elective, and a mixed form of government was introduced. The Hanseatic towns established in 1276 one of their great factories, and the whole commerce of Russia was concentrated in Novgorod. According to some authors, its population amounted at that time to 400,000 souls; it is uncertain however whether or not all the inhabitants of the adjoining district were included. The republick of Novgorod began to decline in the 15th century, and it was completely subdued by the grand duke Iwan Wasiliewitsch in 1578. Its commerce was greatly impaired after the foundation of St. Petersburg; but it still retains the carrying trade between Petersburg and Moscow. *Staraia Russa*, another town in the same government, may be mentioned, not on account of its six thousand inhabitants and its salt mines, but because it is generally believed to have been, as its name indicates, the first capital and the most ancient settlement of the Waraguean Russians. A valuable library of rare and old books is attached to the convent of *Jewerskoi-Monastyr*, which stands on an island in the lake of Waldai. The town of *Ustiushna* is built on the *Scheleso-Polie* or plain of iron, an extensive district, where a great quantity of that metal is obtained. Many of the poor in *Kyrilow* and *Bielo Osersk* gain a subsistence by selling the images of the saints.

Government of Pleskow and Witepsk.

The two governments of *Pleskow* or *Pskow* and *Witepsk*, are nowise different in their physical geography, and the interior of both is formed by the northern, western and southern heights of the ridge Wolchonski. The elevation of the land in the neighbourhood of Weliki-Luki and

Opotscha, varies from seven to eight hundred feet. Granite rocks are thickly scattered, and the *salmo eperlanus* abounds in the numerous lakes. The Duna descends these lofty plains in a south-west direction and by gentle declivities towards the large lake of Peipus. The low country is very different from the heights, the soil is sandy or marshy and not mixed with argil, limestone or shells. The banks of the marshes are covered with ferns and *thymelæa*, the sky is often obscured by mists, and the greater part of the land is sterile. But the inhabitants are not numerous, and a considerable quantity of rye and other grain is annually exported. Hemp and flax are the crops which succeed best; the oak and the apple tree are seldom seen, but the *pranus padus* is by no means rare. The scenery, though bleak and wild, is not destitute of beauty. The water in the lakes is limpid, their channels are easily seen, and the flying squirrel haunts and enlivens the woods. Beams, planks and masts, the produce of the forests, are sent in great numbers to different parts of the empire. The *Welikaia-Reka* or *large river* flows rapidly towards the lake of Pleskow, which forms a part of the Peipus. The Lowat descends to the lake Ilmen, and is confined in its passage by projecting rocks. The name of the *Toropa*, the outlet of many lakes, ought perhaps to be extended to the Duna. The same term enables us to account for the ancient name of Turuntus. It might be worth while to compare the high plains of Pskow and Polotsk with others in the interior of Prussia; both are of the same elevation, at the same distance from the Baltic, and equally important in their relation to geology and physical geography.

Inhabitants.

The population is of a very mixed character, the peasants in the west of Welikaia, particularly in Polish Livonia, are of Lettonian origin, and the nobles are mostly Germans and Poles. All the inhabitants in the greater part of Pskow are Russians, but they are more indolent and less sprightly than the rest of their countrymen. There are besides some Finno-Ingrian, Esthonian and German or Livonian colo-

BOOK CIX.

nists. The banks of the Duna, the greater part of Witepsk and Mohilew are peopled by a particular race, the *Rousniacs*, the *Bielo* or *white* Russians. Their dialect is very ancient and perhaps connected with the Great Russian and Polish, but it is more harmonious than either. It is still spoken in Mohilew, and it extended at one time over the whole of White Russia. Although of Slavonic origin, and not mixed with modern tongues, it cannot be determined whether or not it was used in the middle ages by the *Kriwitzes* or *Kriwetans* of Constantine Porphyrogenetes, or whether that tribe was composed of Slavonians proper, Lithuanians or Finns. The Rousniacs make up the population of the rural districts, and are divided into three classes. The *Zemianini*, who call themselves *Szlachnics* or persons of family, may possess land, they are exempt from statute labour, but are obliged to pay a tax of fourteen roubles to the Polish lords. The *Gloschokunischniczi* are hired labourers, and the *Prigonoi* are attached to the soil.

White Russians.

Classes.

We remark in the government of Witepsk, as we advance from north to south, the town of *Dunaburgh*, once the metropolis of Polish Livonia, and *Polotzk*, a place of 3000 inhabitants, the ancient capital of a small Scandinavian kingdom, and afterwards, from the tenth to the thirteenth century, of a Russian dutchy founded by Isaslav the son of Wladimir the Great. Witepsk contains at present a population of 15,000, and carries on an active trade with Riga. The houses are antiquated and ill built, the streets are narrow, and the old walls are decorated with towers. Many Jews are settled there and in the other towns in the same government, they amass wealth by usury, the inhabitants of every rank are dependent on them, and none more so than the light and frivolous Poles. Pleskow, an ancient Russian province, is not exposed to the last evil, but it has often been the theatre of destructive wars. The town of the same name is built on the Welikaia, and divided into three divisions, each of which is surrounded by a brick wall. Although the inhabitants do not exceed ten thousand, there are not fewer than sixty

churches built of stone. Pleskow was united with the Hanseatic towns, and the people retained their independence until the year 1509. It possessed an extensive commerce, which is much diminished, it now consists of tallow, leather, tar, flax and lint, that is sold for a high price, on account of its fineness. *Weliki-Luki*, which is noted for its good leather, was long one of the frontier towns in Russia. Toropetz or the most populous and commercial town in the government, is situated on the Toropa, the population amounts to 12,000, and the produce of the country is conveyed from it to the Duna. The church of the monks in the convent of Petschora, and the long subterranean alleys are cut in a sandstone rock. The small town of *Isborsk* on the banks of a lake, was in the ninth century the residence of Waraguean princes.

Government of Smolensko.

The government of Smolensko, or the ridge on the other side of the Duna, is less lofty, but not so humid or marshy. The winters are long and severe, still a luxuriant vegetation is expanded by the great heat of summer. The forests abound in lofty trees; large masts are sent to Riga, naval timber and fire wood to Kiew. Although the peasants are slaves, their lords are wealthy, and hemp, flax, wax, tallow, horses, oxen and pigs are the produce of their estates. The peasantry weave their own cloth and linen, and they make carpets, which are prized in many parts of the empire. The ploughs used in the country, are drawn by oxen, and are heavier than those in the other governments. The villages, though built after the Russian manner, are cheerful, and many of the cottages are shaded with trees.* The province of Smolensko has been the ordinary road into which invaders have passed from Poland, and entered Russia. Charles the Twelfth chose a different route, the campaign was disastrous to the Swedes, but his plans were wisely devised. The town of Smolensko was an ancient bulwark

Towns.

* Reinbeck, Reise, II. 230.

BOOK CIX.

of the empire, and the common people consider it, as well as Moscow, a sacred or holy place. The town stands on an amphitheatre, it was speedily rebuilt after its destruction in 1812, and before that period it contained 12,000 inhabitants, its linen and silk manufactories were flourishing, and many persons from different parts of the empire, repaired to its great annual fair. The greater part of *Dorogobousch* is built of stone, and its population amounts to 4000. *Wiaisma*, though built of wood, possesses a considerable trade, and is peopled by 12,000 inhabitants. Grain, flax, lint, wax and honey are exported from its pristan or harbour to Petersburg by the feeders of the Wolga. *Poretchi*, a place of 6000 inhabitants, carries on a trade between Riga and Smolensko by the Kaspla, which falls into the Duna.

Government of Tver.

The Wolga rises in the government of Tver, and when it issues from its natal marsh, it is not more than two feet in breadth. The country on the west is high, cold and in many places unfruitful, but it is covered with lofty forests. The land on the east is lower, the climate is more temperate, and the canals which connect the navigation of the Wolga and the Neva, contribute greatly to the commercial wealth of the people. The town of Tver is well built, the streets are broad, and the squares are large, one of them is adorned with an obelisk in honour of Catherine the Second. The place contains 20,000 inhabitants, and its prosperity depends on its position, which is favourable for commerce. A hundred boats often sail from it in the same day, and pass from the Wolga into the canal of *Wichney-Wolotschek*. The city of the last name is enlivened by the numerous boats which ascend and descend the canal. The cheerful town of *Torjok* is situated between the two last, and participates in their trade. The manufacture of Morocco leather is a lucrative branch of industry, and the population of Torjok exceeds at present 15,000 souls. *Ostaschkow*, which lies towards the west, is the metropolis of an unhealthy district, where the atmosphere is impregnated with disagreeable exhalations that

Towns.

rise from lakes and marshes. The inhabitants earn a livelihood by building boats. *Rjew-Wladimirow* contains 7000 souls, and the boatmen and the other people who subsist by navigation, repair to it. The towns on the east are insignificant, but the inhabitants of *Kaschin* export their red pigment, and the people in *Bejetsk*, their agricultural instruments. The rural population consists for the most part of Finnic Carelians.

Government of Moscow.

The government of Moscow is considered the nucleus of the empire; the inhabitants are more industrious than those in any other Russian province, it is also more populous and better cultivated. The argillaceous and sandy soil is not very fertile, and many parts are covered with heaths or marshes. The northern and eastern districts are well provided with wood; the others are cultivated, and produce rye, barley and early wheat; still the grain raised, and the cattle reared in the whole government, are inadequate to the wants of the inhabitants. The corn harvest in 1802 amounted to 2,570,000 tshetverts, but it was necessary, in addition to that quantity, to purchase and import 1,120,000. The asparagus, plums and apples of the province, are said to be of as good a quality as any in Russia.

Produce.

Industry.

Manufacturing industry is diffused from the capital to the villages, and divided into many branches. Tallow, cloth, silk, calico, sail-cloth, table linen, hats, Russian and Morocco leather, paper, stone ware, porcelain, cutlery and many other articles are exported from the province. The inland trade of the capital is very great, less subject to fluctuation, and of a more national sort than that of Petersburg. The merchants are connected with the different houses throughout the vast empire from Moscow to Kiakhta; they have their agents in Pekin, London, Samarcand and Hamburg.

Commerce.

Towns. Moscow.

The famous city, which was burnt and levelled with the ground by its patriotic inhabitants, has now risen from its ashes with greater splendour, and without having lost its

BOOK CIX.

original character. Moscow, or as it is more correctly styled Moskwa, is situated on a river of the same name at the base of the heights, which are called the *Sparrow hills*. The czars are still crowned in the ancient capital of the empire, and Moscow is still the residence of the oldest families and the wealthiest nobles. It is the seat of an university, several learned societies, of the senate, and a section of the holy synod. As to superficial extent, it is, after Constantinople, the largest town in Europe, for its circumference is not less than five German miles or thirty-four versts.* Its great extent must not be attributed to its population, but to the manner in which it is built. The houses are of a single story, many are detached cottages, there are some palaces with very large gardens, and a great space is covered with churches and chapels. Each church has several cupolas, some are painted in red or green, others are covered with white iron or gilded copper. The number of cupolas is not fewer than 1200, and most of them are overtopped by a cross or crescent. It is a curious spectacle to see such a confused mass of palaces, cottages and cupolas, and the best time to enter Moscow is when the morning sun darts its rays on the different groups. It is then that strangers ascend the tower of Iwan† to take a view of the town.

Extent, appearance.

Three hundred and one churches were set apart for the Greco-Russians, two for the Lutherans, one for the Calvinists, another for the Catholics, a third for the united Greeks, and a fourth for the Armenians. Twenty-nine monasteries were inhabited by monks, and the number of houses amounted to 12,548, although not more than 1706 were built of brick or stone. The population in summer was equal to 250,000, and in winter to 300,000. There were in 1817, or in the fifth year after the great conflagration, 288 churches, 9148 houses, 6187 shops built of stone, and not fewer than 170,000 inhabitants. The population has be-

Number of houses.

* Nearly twenty-three English miles.

† The name of Iwan is synonymous with John.

come during the eight successive years, greater than it ever was at any former period. Many of the wooden houses have been replaced by stone buildings, and although the ancient confusion has not wholly disappeared, for 2600 habitations were not destroyed, still many of the streets and squares are more regular.

Kremel or Kremlin.

Moscow is divided into four quarters, the *Kremel* or citadel, *Kitaigorod*, *Bielogorod* and *Semlanoi-gorod;* but these divisions do not include the numerous *slobodes* or suburbs. The Kremlin is encompassed with high and thick walls, protected by battlements, and flanked with turrets. The dismal fortifications were partly destroyed by the French, and within them was situated the ancient palace of the czars, the residence of the valiant Iwan, the generous Michael Romanzow, the wise Alexis, and Peter the Great. The edifice fell into decay after the last monarch removed the court to the marshes on the Neva; but it was repaired and rendered habitable by Paul the First, who wished perhaps to make Moscow a second time, the capital of the empire. The cathedrals of the Assumption, the Archangel Michael and the Virgin, are all of them within the Kremlin. The sovereigns are consecrated, crowned and married in the first church, Peter II. was the last of the czars who was buried in the second, and the roof of the third is almost wholly covered with gilded copper. These cathedrals are adorned with gold or silver vases, a profusion of pearls, precious stones and other ornaments of antiquated and ordinary workmanship. A silver sconce with forty-eight branches is placed in the Assumption, it weighs seventy pouds, or 2800 English pounds, it was given to the czar by the Dutch. Moses is represented on the top of Sinai, the rays and glory that emanate from Jehovah are of silver, the lawgiver and the mount are of gold. A large chamber in the palace of the czar, is filled with regal crowns, ancient dresses, armour, costly saddles and Tartar harness. The other ten churches within the citadel are remarkable for their gildings, and still more so for the size of their bells,

Bells.

BOOK CIX.

one of which is called *Iwan Weliki* or *John the Great;* it was cast in 1600, during the reign of Godounof, and it is perhaps the largest of any. Another was cast in the time of the same prince, it weighed upwards of 10,000 pouds (400,000 English pounds.) The tower on which it hung, having been reduced to ashes, the bell was melted a second time, and 2000 pouds were added to it by order of the empress *Anna Iwanawna*, who called it by her own name. The steeple was again destroyed by fire in 1737, and since that time Anna Iwanana has been buried in the ruins. The patriarchal library is kept in the church of the Twelve Apostles; it consists chiefly of Greek and Slavonic manuscripts, which are now covered with dust, or consumed by moths.

Kitaigorod.

The *Kitaigorod* or the *Chinese Town* is so called, because Chinese caravans used to repair to it for commercial purposes. It rises like a crescent round the half of the Kremlin, and although it was almost wholly destroyed during the invasion of the French, it is now completely rebuilt. That quarter of the city may be compared to a perpetual fair on account of its rich bazars that are better stocked than any in Petersburg, and its numerous shops, all of which are under arcades. The public buildings in the Kitaigorod, are the exchange, the treasury or a very large modern edifice, and the famous church of Pokrow, from which the patriarch began his triumphal entrance on an ass, that was led by the czar. Twenty other churches are enclosed within the last building, and all of them are arranged so as to admit enough of light, a proof at least of the architect's ingenuity.

Beloigorod.

The two last divisions are surrounded by the *Beloigorod*, or White Town, which is also called the town of the czar, its first name is derived from the colour of its walls. The whole quarter was nearly burnt to the ground in 1812, but it has been much improved since that time. The largest buildings are the foundry, the arsenal, the university and two gymnasia which are attached to it. The

Semlanoi-gorod.

Semlanoi-gorod encompasses the last division, and is sur-

rounded by earthen ramparts and walls, in which were formerly thirty-four wooden and two stone gates, but the latter only remain. A hundred and three churches, the police office, the criminal courts and the foundling hospital, which is the largest and best of its kind in Europe, are situated within the Semlanoi-Gorod. Other edifices might be mentioned in the slobodes or suburbs, but the New Palace, the largest of them all, has not yet been rebuilt. More than a hundred bridges have been erected on the Moskwa, the Neglina and the Jausa; but the water in these rivers is often turbid, and hardly drinkable. An aqueduct was begun by Catherine II., and spring water is now conveyed into the city. The places of amusement are the theatres, public gardens, Russian mountains made of wood and ice, clubs or casinos, concert and assembly rooms. The inns are for the most part frequented by strangers, and few of them are good. The baths on the contrary are commended, and their number exceeds 600. Such is the real capital of the Russian nation, the holy city of the Greco-Russian priests, and the new Jerusalem of their church militant.*

Other towns.

Some other towns and burghs in the same government may be enumerated. *Dmitrof* contains 3000 inhabitants, many of whom are employed in different manufactories; but the people reside at great distances from one another, gardens and fields are cultivated within the walls. *Werbitz* is famed for its porcelain, which affords occupation to 200 workmen. *Kolomna* is peopled by 6000 individuals, and built on a height watered by the Moskwa; its trade consists chiefly in tallow and *postilla* or confects made of apples. *Serpoukof* is an agreeable village on the left bank of the Nara, and its sail-cloth is exported to different parts of the empire. *Veraia*, a town of 600 souls, carries on a trade with Moscow. *Moshaisk* on the Mosk-

* *Reinbeck's* travels translated and abridged in the *Annales des Voyages*. See also in the same work, the map of the Kremlin. *Richter's* Description of Moscow. (German) *Wicheilhusen's* Picture of Moscow. (German) *Lyall's* Account of Moscow. London, 1824.

BOOK CIX.

wa was destroyed in 1812, but it has been since rebuilt and improved.

Monasteries.

The celebrated monastery of *Troizkaia-Laura* or the Holy Trinity, is about sixty versts to the north of Moscow. The walls are a verst and a half in circumference, thirty feet in height, and eight or nine in thickness; and above them are two covered galleries or arcades, from which the view is much admired. The Poles besieged and attempted in vain to take the convent during two years. Nine churches, many buildings inhabited by the monks, large gardens, and a palace founded by Peter the Great, and enlarged by Elizabeth, are situated within the enclosure. Other five churches and a thousand houses, the property of the convent, have been built without the walls. The monastery is supposed to be the oldest in the empire; it was once inhabited by three hundred monks, who were the lords of 130,000 serfs or peasants. Their annual revenue, it is said, amounted to L.50,000. But, since *the spoliation of the Russian clergy*, as the priests term it, the number of monks was reduced to a hundred, and their income to 20,000 roubles or L.4170. A hundred peasants only are now attached to the establishment. The *New Jerusalem* or the convent of *Woskresensko* is built like the church of the Holy sepulchre at Jerusalem, and not, as several travellers affirm, after the plan of Solomon's temple.

Government of Wladimir.

The government of Wladimir lies to the north-east of Moscow, its soil, climate and productions are nearly of the same nature. Gardening is well understood, but salted and pickled mushrooms are in winter the common food of the lower orders in different districts. The *Kliasma* and the *Occa*, which rolls fragments of gold and other metals, water the country, and form a communication with the Wolga. *Wladimir* or Wlodimir, once a very flourishing town, the residence of the grand dukes of the province, and the founders of Moscow, has fallen into decay, although its twenty-five churches and Archbishop's palace still remain. The inhabitants send cherries, cucumbers and

Rivers.

vegetables to Moscow, but they derive little advantage from their manufactures. The *Swungir* flows at the distance of six versts from the town, and many pebbles, false topazes and jaspers are collected on its banks. Susdal was the first residence of the Wlodimirian dukes, its kremlin or old castle is now in ruins, but it retains its linen and cloth manufactories. The dialect spoken by the people is mixed with Russian and other words in an unknown tongue. *Pereslawl* or *Sa-leskii*, which signifies the town beyond the wood, contains 5000 souls; its trade consists in cloth, silk and leather. The city is built on the banks of lake *Pleschtow*, where Peter the Great had two frigates, in which he studied practical navigation. *Murom* on the Occa was the ancient capital of the Mordvine princes; it is peopled by 7000 individuals, and exports a great quantity of soap and Russian leather. Rich mines of iron are situated at the distance of twenty-five versts from Murom, and at nearly sixty versts from it, are large veins of alabaster, which extend to Nischnei-Novgorod. Sixteen large glasshouses and several manufactories have been built in the district of *Duratschevo*.*

Industry and agriculture.

The iron and copper works are in a flourishing state, but little improvement has been made in the agriculture of the province. One or two cows, a wretched horse, and seven or eight lean sheep make up the whole property of a peasant on a noble domain. The serfs of the crown are not so poor, but their cottages are very dirty; a cow and a calf, or a mare and foal are often seen in the hovels inhabited by their owners. The use which is made of the Siberian centaury from Murom to Arsamas, is not generally known in other countries. The largest leaves are collected and dried, they are afterwards applied, as occasion may require, to wounds and scars; in this way, it is affirmed, a wound is more speedily cicatrized and healed than by any other method.

* Ephémérides Géograph. of Weymar, XX. p. 225.

BOOK CIX.

Lake *Poganovo.*

The lake Poganovo appears to have been formed by the sinking of the ground; floating islands are sometimes seen on it, but they only rise to the surface after tempestuous weather.*

Government of Jaroslaw.

The northern situation of the government of Jaroslaw renders the climate colder than in the two last provinces. The soil is not of a bad quality, but the grain harvests are never abundant; lint succeeds better, and the art of gardening has been brought to greater perfection than in any other Russian government. The inhabitants of some rural districts gain a livelihood by making stockings, hats and different woollen or linen stuffs. Many individuals emigrate temporarily into other provinces, and obtain employment as gardeners or workmen.

Towns. Industry.

The inhabitants of *Jaroslavl* or Jaroslaw on the Wolga, are perhaps as industrious as any in the Russian empire. The town, before the fire in 1768, contained 6100 houses, 84 churches, and 21,000 souls; its present population amounts to 24,000, the number of houses to 2800, and there are not fewer than 63 churches, of which 44 are built of stone. The linen and silk manufactories are very flourishing, and table linen, Russian leather, linseed oil and many other articles are sent to Petersburg. The school of arts was founded and richly endowed by the celebrated Demidof, and it obtained afterwards the same privileges as the universities.

Government of Kostroma.

Rostow is built on a lake of the same name, where Peter the Great engaged in some skirmishes before he gained his naval victories. The exports are linen, sulphuric acid and minium. Many strangers repair to the different fairs; the number of inhabitants is not less than 6000, and the town was at one time the capital of an ancient dutchy. The population of *Uglitsch* on the Wolga, is equal to 7000 souls, and its commerce consists chiefly in leather, soap and paper. Iron is the staple article in the trade of *Borissoglebsk*, and

* Lepekhin's Travels, quoted by Georgi.

the wealth of *Rybensk* depends on its tallow works and linen manufactories.

The same industry does not extend to the lofty forests in the government of Kostroma, where the lime grows luxuriantly on the Wetluga, and dark pines cover the wilder banks of the Unscha. The climate becomes sensibly colder as we advance eastwards, and the population, which is greater than in some German kingdoms, exceeds 1,400,000. The habits and occupation of the country people are nearly the same as in the government of Jaroslaw, but the emigration from the province is greater, and the land of the absentees is cultivated by women and children. Kostroma, a town of 9000 souls, is surrounded with earthen ramparts, and the inhabitants export linen, soap and Russian leather. *Makariew-Unsha* is often confounded with Makariew on the Wolga. *Galitsch* on the lake of the same name, contains 6000 souls.

Government of Nischnei Novgorod.

The government of *Nischnei* or *Lower Novgorod* is perhaps the finest province in the Russian empire. Picturesque and varied hills, regular and temperate seasons, a fertile though sandy soil, lofty forests of oaks and limes, abundant crops of corn, good cattle, plenty of fish and game, salt, iron and copper mines, and a position favourable for inland trade, are some of the advantages by which it is distinguished. The largest *sterlets* in the whole of Russia are taken from the Occa, which unites with the Wolga in the same province. A chain of littoral hills, the *Balaklanova-Gora*, extends on the left of the last river. They are well wooded in some places, and in others they are cultivated to the summits, which are between five and six hundred feet above the level of the sea. Calcareous rocks abounding in caverns are situated in the neighbourhood of the Piana, and the name of the river, which signifies *Drunken*, is expressive of the irregular windings, that are probably occasioned by its streams being diverted into cavities. The lake *Tilenina* is often lost in an abyss, but a piece of wood, or any light

BOOK CIX.

body passes through the concealed passage, and is seen again floating on the small river Wad. The fish in the lake *Mandewskoi*, are not easily caught in the net, and it is supposed that they escape into caverns.*

Town of Nisch-Gorod.

Nisch-Gorod or *Nischnei Novgorod*, the *Low New town* is distinguished from the ancient Novgorod, and to the name of the last is generally added the adjective *Weliki* or Great. Those who leave the same place for Nischnei Novgorod, sail down the Wolga, and it is for that reason called the low town. It contains 1826 houses and a population of 12,000 souls. The place is one of the great marts for the inland trade, and it is likely to retain that advantage from its central position between the north and south of European Russia, from its vicinity to the mines of Permia, and from its navigation on the Wolga and the Occa. Some of its exports are copper, iron, cordage, tallow and beer, and the three thousand barks that sail to it every year, are manned by 70,000 *burlaki* or boatmen. A great many Persians, Tartars, Bucharians and Chinese meet at the fair of Nisch-Gorod, and the value of the different articles, which are exposed to sale, is rarely less than a hundred millions of roubles. Arsamas, or the second town in the government, is peopled by 8000 individuals; the streets are dirty, and the houses are ill built, but the inhabitants are industrious and comparatively affluent; almost all of them are tradesmen or soap-boilers, dyers and shoemakers. The *kraschennina* or blue stuffs, which are worn by the women throughout many provinces, are for the most part dyed in the town. A great quantity of potashes is likewise made, but that branch of industry is in the hands of government, and all the forests in different districts are reserved for the use of the works. Hard or old wood is always preferred to young or tender trees, and, as M. Storch observes rightly, the destruction of the forests may in a great mea-

* Lepekhin and Pallas quoted by Georgi in his description of Russia. I. p. 276.

sure be attributed to that cause. *Potsckinki* is peopled by 5000 souls, and the inhabitants of *Balakna* export the salt that is obtained from the saline springs in the vicinity. *Paulowa* on the Occa has the appearance of a large village, it contains 6000 inhabitants, and almost every man in the place is a smith or a cutler. Scissors, knives, swords, air-guns, files, planes, locks and padlocks are exported. Many of the last articles are very small, and of admirable workmanship; they are sent into Asia, and each is sold for a rouble. Pogost, another village of the same sort, contains 3000 inhabitants, who carry on a trade in arms.

The population of the government amounts to 1,350,000, and in that number there may be sixty or seventy thousand Tschouvasches and Mordvines, a distinct people, of whom we have already given some account.

Government of Penza.

The government of Penza, which is watered by the Soura and the Moschka, is in many places fertile, the soil is generally rich and of a dark colour; the oak and the nut tree abound in the forests. Agriculture is the chief occupation of the inhabitants, and their number throughout the province is not less than a million, inclusively of 40,000 Mordvines, and 21,000 Tartars. Leather, glass, potashes and spirits are the principal exports. Many horses are bred in different parts of the country, and one variety, of a white colour, is covered in winter with a coarse and thick wool.* The women make use of different dyes, that are very durable, and they extract them from indigenous plants, or wild madder, *genista* and *serratula*. Iron-works have been erected at *Insara*, and the same metal abounds in different parts of the government. The town of Penza is a place of trade, it stands on a height watered by the Soura, and its population exceeds 11,000 souls. The country on the east of the Soura is covered with forests, and the *brassica oleracea* grows spontaneously on the sandy banks of rivers.

Variety of the horse.

* Pallas, Voyages, I. p. 132.

BOOK CIX.

Saransk, a town of 7000 inhabitants, many of whom are soap-boilers or tanners, and *Krasno-Slobodsk* with its numerous distilleries, are situated in the north of the province.

Government of Tambof.

The southern districts in the government of Tambof are fertile in pasturage, and the oak and the ash are the most common trees in the forests. The soil is poorer in the north, but the pine, the birch, the alder and the lime abound in the woods. The open plains descend for the most part towards the north, and on that account the temperature is colder than might have been inferred from the latitude. Cattle are exported from the province, and the grain raised on it, is sufficient for the consumption of the inhabitants; but many natural products are neglected, among others, kermes or Polish cochineal, which may be collected from every oak, and the cantharides or insects that abound on the ash trees. The population is equal to 1,400,000, and in that number there are about 300,000 *odnovorzi*, or free husbandmen, the proprietors of their farms. Some of the other inhabitants are Little Russians, Mordvines, and Tartars, who are distinguished from their neighbours by their honesty, knowledge and comparative wealth.* The industry of the townsmen is confined to the manufacturing of cloth and linen, to the distillation of strong liquor, and the working of iron. The quantity of the last metal, which is smelted in the numerous furnaces belonging to a single individual,† amounts to a hundred and twenty or a hundred and thirty thousand *pouds*.‡ The district of Kadom abounds in honey; and flour, cattle, hides, wax and river boats are exported from different parts of the country. The Mokscha is the principal outlet for the commerce of the province, it crosses Penza, receives the *Tzna*, which issues from the steppes

Produce.

Population.

Towns, Steppes.

* Description du gouvernement de Tambof, Journal de Statistique, t. VII. cahier.

† These iron works belong to M. Bataschef.

‡ 4,800,000 or 5,200,000 lbs.

on the south of Tambof, and their united streams flow into the Oka. The city of Tambof is peopled by 15,000 individuals, but its trade is insignificant. A steppe or uncultivated plain extends to the south of the town, and affords shelter for game and different wild animals. *Koslow* contains 8000 souls, and its commerce is more considerable; it is situated on the Woronesch, a feeder of the Don, and its rapid course indicates the descent of the ridge. The largest towns towards the north are *Morshansk* on the Tzna, and *Ielatma* on the Oka.

Government of Riæsan.

The uniformity of the central plains is interrupted to a certain extent, in the government of Riæsan. The country to the south of the capital is rich in grain, but the picturesque hills, the shaded and sheltered plains terminate at the banks of the Oka. The northern part of the country is wilder, the numerous lakes in the district of *Iegoriewsk* are encompassed by vast forests, and their waters pass by the Pra into the Oka. Agriculture forms the great occupation of the people, and the quantity of grain produced above what is consumed in the country exceeds two millions of tshetverts.* Egyptian barley, or *hordeum nudum* is cultivated in the province, and the large orchards of apple and cherry trees are mostly confined to the central districts.† The art of gardening is well understood, and bees' wax, hops, girkins and different vegetables are sent to Moscow. The peasants not only weave the cloth, and make the stockings which they wear, but articles of the same kind are exported and sold to the country people in the neighbouring provinces. An immense number of quails are salted every autumn, and exported in barrels to different parts of the empire. Flax and lint succeed in the northern districts, and many of the villagers are employed in spinning thread, or in making linen.

Lakes in the district of Iegoriewsk.

Gardening.

* The poud is equal to forty pounds, and the tshetvert is equal to seven pouds and a half.

† Postoph, chez les écrivains agronomes Français.

BOOK CIX.

The population is equal to 1,200,000, but there are not more than 150,000 free peasants. The serfs are not so poor as in many other governments. The number of Tartars in Riæsan is not greater than two or three thousand, and the most wealthy amongst them reside at *Kasimow*, the ancient metropolis of a Tartar principality, and at present a commercial town of 10,000 souls. The Tartars inhabit the upper part of the town, where they have a mosque, and carry on a lucrative trade in fur. Ruins and inscriptions are observed in the neighbourhood.

Tartars in Kasimow.

Town of Riæsan.

Riæsan, although the capital and the ancient residence of the great dukes, contains little worthy of notice; it is ill built, and peopled only by five thousand inhabitants, but the ancient Riæsan, that the Tartars destroyed, was not perhaps situated on the same place. The present town, which was probably built in the 15th century, might have been first known by the name of *Pereslawl-Riæsanski.* Olearius informs us that it is twenty miles distant from the ancient site.* Although the direction is not mentioned, it is likely that the former city lay near the confluence of the Istra and the Oka. It was supposed to have been the same as the *Rysa-land* of the fabulous Icelandic *sagas*, but that name is, according to its true meaning, a mythological term, and signifies the land of giants.

Government of Toula.

The government of *Tula* or *Toula* extends along an unvaried and not very fertile plain. Rye, buck wheat, millet and wheat are raised on it, and apples, cherries, peas, cucumbers and other plants grow in the gardens. All the trees common to central Russia are found in the forests, which are by no means extensive. The bees fed on buck wheat and the flower of the lime, yield rich honey. Singing birds are tamed, taught different airs, and exported in great numbers.† Lastly, fishing and the chase are not

* Olearius's Travels in Muscovy, p. 273.

† "Near the same stalls were tubs full of pismires crawling among the eggs and over the persons of those who sold them. Both the eggs and the ants are brought to Moscow as food for nightingales, which are favourite though common birds in Russian houses. They sing in every respect as beautifully in cages as

unprofitable occupations. Such, however, are all the advantages of this petty kingdom. It ought also to have been added that the monotonous plain is cultivated with much care by a numerous population of laborious, docile and obedient serfs. The yoke, it is true, weighs heavily on them; but their rigid masters excuse the severity of their conduct, by alleging that harsh measures are necessary, otherwise the slaves might revolt, for they are apt to imagine kindness or mild treatment, a proof of timidity or weakness. It is not unlikely that they are the descendants of an ancient Finnic race, which peopled the country on the south from Tula to Woronetz. We learn from the work of a well-informed traveller, that the peasants have fair hair like the Finlanders, and differ in their complexion from the Russians, the Cossacks and the Poles.* They were probably a branch of the *Wiætitches*, a Finnic people, whose principal settlement was in the government of Koursk, and extended across Orel towards Tula. If we suppose that the nation had made any progress in civilization, the population might have at least amounted to a million of individuals. The sovereign state was subdued by the Russians of Kiow, and the natives speak at present the Russian language.

Wiætitches.

The town Tula.

The view of Tula from a distance is not inferior to any other of the kind in Russia, its numerous domes, its chalk edifices shaded by trees, add to its romantic appearance, and when the stranger hears on approaching it the noise of machinery, he is apt to suppose it a commercial town. But the first impression is soon destroyed, the streets are nar-

in their native woods. We often heard them in the bird shops, warbling with all the fulness and variety of tone, which characterizes the nightingale in its natural state. The price of one of them in full song, is about fifteen roubles. The Russians, by rattling beads on their tables of tangible arithmetic, can make the birds sing at pleasure during the day; but nightingales are heard throughout the night, making the streets of the city resound the melodies of the forest." Clarke's Travels, Chap. VII.

* Clarke's Travels, Chap. XI.

BOOK CIX.

row, crooked and ill paved, and almost all the houses are built of wood. Peter the First established a manufactory of arms, which affords employment to 5000 men, but the different articles that they make, are of inferior workmanship. The inhabitants amount to 30,000, there is a theatre in the town, and what is rare in Russian cities, the streets are lighted in the evenings. The trade of the place consists partly in the importation of Greek wines, and in the produce of the Levant, both of which are exported to the north of Russia; the other exports are Russian leather, linen, woollen stuffs, cutlery and Prussian blue. Many valuable iron mines are situated in the vicinity, and the ore is found among sand or vegetable mould near the surface of the earth. It is of so rich a kind that the metal is to the ore nearly in the ratio of seventy to a hundred, and the best iron in all Russia is wrought in the works at *Dougna* near Tula.

The other places of any importance are *Bielew* on the Occa, a town of 7000 inhabitants, *Wenew* with 3400, and the village of *Titawa*, which is partly peopled by three hundred silk weavers.

Nobles.

The free peasants in the government are not numerous, but there are not fewer than 1800 noble families, a greater number than in the whole of Sweden. A hundred and five persons have the title of princes, and eight only are counts. The proportion in the adjoining government of Kaluga is less remarkable, for there are thirty-six counts and only sixty-one princes. The Kiovian families that settled in these provinces at the time of the conquest, and the Finns that were not reduced to slavery, may enable us to account for the great number of nobles.

Government of Kaluga.

If there be any difference between the governments of Kaluga and Tula, it consists in the comparative sterility of the former; in other respects, the climate, produce and soil are the same. The people are equally industrious, and the inhabitants of inconsiderable towns are employed in manufacturing paper, fine linen or sail cloth, in dressing leather, and in making glass. The largest iron works in

all Russia are those of *Ugodka;* arms and heavy ordnance are founded in them, but the metal used is not of a very good quality. Kaluga on the Occa, contains 25,000 souls, it is not less than ten versts in circumference, but the greater part of it is ill built. Fourteen hundred workmen are employed in manufacturing sail cloth, and a trade is carried on in military saddles, pottery and boxes or ornaments made of inlaid wood. The same place is noted for its caviar, a great quantity of which is exported. The population of *Kozelsk* amounts to 3500, the streets are straight and broad, and the town is better built than many others in Russia. *Borowsk*, on the contrary, is wholly built of wood, but it is, with the exception of the capital, the most important of any in the province. The greater proportion of its 6000 inhabitants labour in different manufactories. Hemp and flax succeed in the government, but they are frequently destroyed by the camelina. Many foresters protect the trees, and their labours are rendered easy by the religious processions of the Greek priests, who sprinkle holy water round the woods, and prohibit the villagers from cutting them.* The largest forests are situated in the district of Mechtschof.

Government of Orel.

The uniformity of the central plains is interrupted in the government of Orel; the calcareous hills are separated by deep valleys, the soil is more fruitful, and the system of husbandry nowise inferior to that in the two preceding provinces. It is, on the whole, one of the most productive governments in the empire, and the excess of grain above what is necessary for the consumption of the people, is not less in ordinary seasons than five or six millions of tshetverts. Wheat and barley are the chief articles of exportation. Almost every man is devoted to husbandry or the rearing of cattle, consequently much improvement has not been made in the different manufactures. That branch of industry is in some measure rendered superfluous by the

* Travels of Sujew, quoted by Georgi.

BOOK CIX.

absence of luxury, and the simple and frugal habits of the people. Glass and iron are, in addition to the agricultural produce, the only articles that are exported, for no more leather is prepared in the different tan works, than what is used in the province. The word Orel is pronounced as if it were written *Oriol* or *Ariol*, which signifies an eagle, and from *orelowa*, the genitive plural of the same noun, is derived the adjective *orlowskaia*. The government is thus distinguished by many names, a circumstance which has excited the surprise of travellers, although all of them, it must be admitted, are nearly synonymous. Orel, a town of 20,000 inhabitants, is built after the Russian manner, on the Oka, which might be there navigable for boats, if a great quantity of water were not lost in supplying the mills belonging to the Count Golownin; such inconveniences are by no means uncommon in many provinces. The corn that is exported from Little Russia to Petersburg is deposited in Orel. *Ieletz*, which contains 8000 souls, and *Briansk*, a town of 5000 inhabitants, carry on a trade in wheat and cattle. *Bolchow*, the second city in the government, is peopled by 14,000 individuals, and its commerce consists chiefly in leather and woollen stuffs.

Government of Kursk.

The difference in the climate and productions of Kursk is very obvious. Winter does not last longer than four months; the arbute and the melon ripen, there are besides apples, cherries and plenty of plumbs; and the fruit of the wild pear tree (the only kind in the government) is made into preserves. Wheat and barley yield about nine-fold, the grain is not dried in ovens, but kept in *silos*, sometimes from six to ten years. The wheat, however, is not unfrequently destroyed by mildew. The meadows are never covered with water, and they afford rich pasturage. The light plough is not used, the oxen in the country are large and strong. The population is not so widely dispersed as in the other provinces, and the labourers are not so unfortunate. Thus the inhabitants amount to a million and a half, but there are not fewer than 320,000 odnovorzi or

free peasants, all of whom are Little Russians.* The greatest disadvantage in this government, as in the last, is the want of a navigable river. The *Seim* or the *Sem* appears a large river on the map, as well as the *Desna*, into which it falls, but their streams are not very deep, and navigation is obstructed in many places by numerous mills. The bad quality of the water exposes the inhabitants to *tænia*, and the cattle to *fascia hepatica*.†

Towns.

The fortifications of Kursk have been changed into gardens and public walks, and the number of inhabitants has increased to 20,000. Wax, tallow and cattle are exported from it to Petersburg and Moscow; but its fire wood is imported from Orel. A great fair is held every year at the hermitage of *Korenaia Pustina*, which is also a place of resort on account of its miraculous image. The horses, cattle and different articles, which are sold at the fair, amount in value to five millions of roubles. *Michailowka* belongs to Count *Scheremetew*, who lets about 1000 houses to five or six thousand free Little Russians, some of whom travel about the country and sell their wares, while others are employed in manufacturing them. *Putiwl* contains 10,000 souls, and is the second town in the government. The extensive ruins of an ancient city surrounded by *Kurgans* or sepulchral hills, are situated on the banks of the Swapa. A great quantity of cloth is manufactured at *Gluschkova*, and although *Korotscha* is not a place of trade, its population exceeds 9000 souls. *Belgorod*, a town of 8000 inhabitants, was at one time the capital of the government, it is sometimes confounded with another place of the same name, which was built in the neighbourhood of Kiew by Wladimir in the year 900. The former was not founded before the year 1597, and it is uncertain if it be the same as *Sarkel*, the white city of the Chazares, for there might have been many *white* towns in a country abounding in hills of chalk.

Itinerant merchants.

* Larionow, Description du gouvernement de Kursk.

† Sujew, quoted by Georgi, p. 599.

BOOK CIX.

Government of Woronesch. Climate and productions.

It remains for us to give a short account of another government in Great Russia, that of Woronesch or Voronez, the southern half of which is wholly peopled by Little Russians. The total population amounts to 1,400,000, and the number of odnovorzi to 500,000; the nobles in the province are not very numerous. The climate is as mild, humid and variable as in the country of the Donian Cossacks. The atmosphere in summer is cooled by frequent storms, and the air is sometimes darkened by dense mists. Corn abounds, the plum, the arbute and the melon thrive, but the grape ripens only in very warm seasons. Tobacco and *capsicum annuum* are cultivated, and wild asparagus grows to the thickness of a man's finger.

The land in some districts is very fertile, and others are covered with large forests of oaks, that may soon be used in the naval stations on the Black Sea. The inhabitants are exposed to great inconvenience from the badness of the water, which is hard, disagreeable to the taste, and flows through a calcareous country. The Don crosses the government, and receives the Woronesch, on which large vessels might sail in winter, but it is scarcely navigable for boats in summer.

Syphilis is perhaps the most prevalent disease in Woronesch and in many other Russian provinces, but it is cured by a heroic remedy, namely, sublimate of mercury dissolved in strong spirits.

Town of Woronesch.

The town of Woronesch on the river of the same name, contains 12,000 inhabitants, some of whom are employed in different vitriol and soap works, and others in manufacturing cloth, or in dressing leather. Peter the Great erected there the first dock yards for building ships in Russia, and a large botanical garden was cultivated in the neighbourhood by order of the same prince, but it is now overgrown with oaks, forest trees and underwood. Many *Zigeunes* or Gypsies wander in different districts, they are so numerous that an English traveller considers them the predominant race. The other towns

are not large, Ostrogoschk, which is next to the capital, contains only 4000 inhabitants, and among them are some German colonies. It is affirmed that the tobacco pipes made by these settlers are not inferior to any in Holland.

The Divni Gori.

The right bank of the Don near the confluence of the Sosna, is covered with chalk hills of a remarkable appearance, some of them resemble columns or pillars; the Russians call them the *Divni Gori* or strange mountains. The monks belonging to the ancient monastery of *Dwingorskoi*, built their subterranean cells and chapels in different parts of the hills.

Fossil bones.

The bones of large animals, teeth, jaw bones, ribs, vertebræ and others have been observed on the banks of the Don at thirty versts from Woronesch. Some of them are entire, others are partly decomposed. They occupy a space of eighty yards in length, and descend to the depth of three below the ground. Whoever has seen the skeletons of elephants, might readily conclude that they are the remains of these animals.

BOOK CX.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Sixth Section. Provinces of Little Russia. Manners and Customs of the Russians.

BOOK CX.

Historical remarks.

THE nature of the subject and the uniformity of the country, may have rendered our account of Great Russia, and the topographical details into which we have entered, tedious and uninteresting. But another task of the same kind remains. We have still to describe Little Russia or the four governments of *Kiev, Tchernigof, Pultava, Charkof,* to these shall be added the former Polish provinces of Podolia and Volhynia, because the great majority of the inhabitants are Little Russians by origin, and they still adhere to the rites of the Greek church. These causes may account for the great success of the Russians in their invasions of the late Polish republick, which was chiefly composed of provinces wrested from Russia or from the great dukes of Galitch, Vladimir, Volynski, Polotzk and particularly Kiow, by Boleslas the Victorious, Casimir the Great, kings of Poland, and by Gedimin, great duke of Lithuania. All the peasants were Rousniacs or Little Russians, ignorant of the language and customs of Poland; they abandoned their lords without reluctance, and received willingly the Russian soldiers and their countrymen, who spoke the same dialect as themselves. The same people were persecuted by intole-

rant Catholic priests, who disregarded the *constitutions* of the Polish diet. Thus the nobles were the only persons interested in the defence of provinces, whose inhabitants were estranged from the Poles, although they had remained under their government from the time of the conquest. The division of Poland was on the part of Russia not so much a lawless invasion as an act of reprisal on former invaders. Had the leading historical facts been explained in the Russian manifesto, which was circulated in 1772, so much obloquy might not have been attached to their conduct.

Physical description.

Little Russia and the Polish Ukraine make up a country of 32,156 square miles, or 6425 square leagues, and the population is not less than 9,200,000 individuals, who are almost equally distributed on the banks of the Dnieper. The country is lower than the central table land of Russia, and the promontories of the Carpathians that bound it on the east and the west. The Ukraine forms a great plain varied only by inconsiderable heights. The Dnieper, which marks the lowest line, divides it into two parts, and the western banks of the river are in most places low and marshy. The two governments of *Tchernigof* and *Pultava*, and the western half of *Charkof* form a sloping plain that rises gradually from the banks of the Dnieper to the central ridge of Russia. The line, at which the plain terminates and the ridge begins, has not been accurately determined; it is known, however, that it crosses and does not circumscribe the basins of the rivers. The whole of Tchernigof, with the exception of some belts of chalk and sand, is covered with a layer of dark and rich land. The eastern half of Charkof forms the extremity of the central ridge, it may be compared to a steppe with a gentle declivity towards the basin of the Don. The soil is sandy and not very fruitful. The country is much more varied on the Polish bank of the Dnieper, and hills from a hundred to a hundred and fifty feet in height, bound the course of the river in the government of Kiew, in which there are many picturesque

Plains and ridge.

BOOK CX.

views, although the greater part of the country consists of large plains. The hills that extend from the falls of the Dnieper, cross the south of the province, and divide the streams and rivers. The Ross, the Moszyn and Tiasmin enclose within their branches, which are united by lakes, a sort of delta near Czerkassy, the ancient capital of the Cossacks. The land in that part of the country is fruitful and covered with rich herbage, it is also the lowest in all the Ukraine. The hills of *Nedoborschetz* in Podolia are five hundred feet above the level of the Black Sea, they are a branch of the ridge *Biecziad*, that extends across Red Russia to the east of Lemberg, and abounds in lakes of which the elevation has not been measured. Other chains connected with the Biecziad mountains penetrate into Volhynia, but are nowhere higher than 350 feet. Numerous cascades and romantic vales in the hilly country of Podolia have been described by travellers; but we are convinced from the examination of the maps recently drawn on the different districts,* that the apparent inequalities in the province are chiefly occasioned by deep valleys and the confined beds of rivers. The hills and plains in the three governments are covered with a layer of dark and rich mould, but the soil in Podolia is mixed with a greater quantity of argil, and sand is less uncommon in Volhynia; the northern part of the last province is connected with the wide marshes in the former Polesia.

Hills.

Rivers.

Almost all the streams and rivers in the two Ukraines serve to enlarge the Dnieper. The *Desna*, which flows on the left or towards Russia, is joined by the Sem, and crosses the whole of Tchernigof, the *Sula*, the *Psiol*, the *Worskla*, which waters Pultava and the north-west of Charkof, the Oriel, that marks the frontier of Pultava on the right or Polish side, the *Pripetz* or outlet of all the marshes in Polesia, the *Tetirew* and the *Ross* fall into the great central river, of which the navigation is unfor-

* Atlas of Podolia. See the Statistics of Marczynski.

tunately broken by waterfalls. The rivers in Podolia are the feeders of the Bug and the Dneister.

Climate and productions.

The climate is not very different in either of the Ukraines, the eastern districts of Charkof, and the northern of Tchernigof form an exception, and perhaps are more connected with the climate of Kursk. The rivers never freeze before the month of December, and are always open by the end of February, but the north-east and sometimes the west wind are the harbingers of sudden and intense cold. The rivers are drained by the summer's heat and the total absence of rain. The stagnant waters generate different diseases, and swarms of grasshoppers are then scattered over the country from the valley of the Dneister to the fields of Volhynia. The climate is admirably adapted for every kind of grain, and the ordinary return is as ten to one. The plough is the only instrument that is used, and the lands set apart for corn, are never manured. The fertile meadows are covered with trefoil and lucerne, and the oxen in the Ukraine are little inferior to the Hungarian or the best in Europe; the horses are much larger and stronger than in Russia.* The apple, pear, cherry and plum trees are covered with fruit, which is exported in its raw state, or made into preserves and liqueurs. There is no scarcity of tobacco, cochineal, wax and honey; the fine oaks in the Ukraine are used in building ships, but some districts, particularly in Poltava and Charkof, are ill supplied with wood. Plantations of mulberries thrive in different parts of the country, the vine is cultivated in the neighbourhood of Kiew and Nejin, but the grapes are acid and unpleasant to the taste. We shall enter into the details connected with these general observations, when we give an account of the provinces.

Inhabitants.

The people are not degraded by slavery in the Russian Ukraine. The Malo or Little Russians, who make up the mass of the community, enjoy personal freedom; they are either *odnovorzi* (petty proprietors,) or *posadki* (free hus-

* Levasseur de Beauplan.

bandmen.) They are frank, hospitable and gay, their happiness is seldom disturbed by worldly cares, and their affluence is proportionate to their industry. The nobles are for the most part of Polish or Great Russian origin, they have no slaves, and are distinguished rather by the virtues than the vices of their order. The burgesses and traders have not to contend against the children of Abraham, and a Jew cannot settle in the country without making himself liable to severe penalties. The Polish Ukraine is very different; it is true that the peasants are not less gay, but they are poor and wretched, all of them are covered with rags, and inhabit dirty cottages. Although their bondage is less rigid than in Great Russia, it is sufficient to weaken the energy of their character. The petty nobles are Poles, and form the next class above the peasantry. The great proprietors, though the lords of extensive domains, are often poor, and all classes of society are under the thraldom of the Jews, who swarm in the towns and in the country, and are more destructive than the grasshoppers, for the ravages of the last are only temporary.

Topographical description.

The town of Kiew is not only geographically, but politically the central point of the Ukraines. It was once the first town in Russia, a long time the pantheon of the Slavonic divinities, and at a later period, the holy city of the Greek Christians. The Great Russians call it Kiow, and it is still one of the most remarkable places in the empire. It stands on the right bank of the Dnieper, rises on several hills, and its quadruple enclosure encompasses four distinct divisions. *Podol* or the low town, the residence of tradesmen and burgesses, is situated on the banks of the river, and adorned by an imperial palace and several public buildings, of which the largest is the university. All the professors are monks, who make a vow never to eat animal food, but most of them contrive to elude or break their oath. The college is known by a very long Latin name,* and it is generally attended by more than 1500 students. The

* Academia orthodoxa Kiovo-Mohilæano-Zaboromskiana.

edifices most worthy of notice in the *High Town* or *Old Kiew* are the cathedral, which is perhaps the richest of any in Russia, and the monastery where the metropolitan of Kiew, Kalitsch and Little Russia resides; the other houses are chiefly inhabited by monks. *Vladimir*, another quarter, was founded by Catherine the Second, but the whole of it is not yet inhabited. *Petscher* or the citadel is regularly fortified, and commands every part of the city except a small portion of the high town. The different ministerial offices, the barracks and the famous convent of Petscherskoi, in which are deposited the bones of a hundred and fifty martyrs, are situated near the fortress.* The most of the houses that form the *slobode*, which extends to the base of the citadel, belong to the convent. The total population amounted in 1802 to 40,000 souls, but it has rapidly increased of late years.† Apricots, peaches and in some seasons grapes ripen in the imperial gardens; but *wymorosli* or the national drink, is a sort of verjuice or imperfect wine.

Government of Charkof.

The government of Charkof or Kharkof, one of the three on the east of the Dnieper, contains several flourishing towns, among others, the capital of the same name, with a population of 15,000 souls, *Achtyrka* and *Sumi*, each of which is peopled by 12,000 individuals, and two others of ten thousand inhabitants, or *Tchougoniew* and *Bielopoli*. The trade of these places consists for the most part in spirituous liquors, leather and woollen stuffs. The mulberry thrives in the neighbourhood of Kharkof, and a small grape without stones, and of an acid flavour, arrives at maturity in the gardens of *Isium*. Much corn is consumed in the numerous distilleries, still the quantity exported from the province varies from two to three millions of *tshetverts*. The land owners pay great attention to the breed of horses and sheep, but the latter are subject to the *mokilitza*, a contagious disease by which thousands are destroyed.

Grapes in the gardens of Isium.

* Herbinius, Religiosæ Kiovenses cryptæ. Jenæ, 1675.

† Russischer Merkur, 1805, article second, page 148.

BOOK CX.

Numerous flocks of pigeons, the property of no master, are seen throughout the country. Different kinds of pulse are cultivated, and asparagus grows spontaneously on the steppes. *Quas*, a national drink, is made from the wild apple, *wischnewka* from cherries, and *ternewka* from mazzards and plums, they are pleasant to the taste, and not unwholesome. The Jews are suffered to remain in the country, and the indulgence of the inhabitants towards them is one of the greatest evils to which the province is exposed. The town of Kharkof is the seat of one of the seven Russian universities, and it possesses besides several libraries, museums, and academical collections.*

Government of Pultava.

The extensive and monotonous valleys in the government of Pultava may be shortly described. It is difficult to say much concerning wide plains covered with fruits and every kind of grain. The vine might perhaps be cultivated, but the prospect is nowhere varied by woods or forests. White honey and *girka*, or a sort of early barley without spikes, the *tribulus aquaticus* that abounds on the marshes of the Dnieper, and Polish cochineal, with which many oaks are covered, may be mentioned among the productions of the government. The *anas cygnoides* or blue Caspian goose, and the *anas boschas* or Persian duck are not uncommon in the poultry yards, and the pelican, the red duck and the *ardea virgo* are observed among the wild birds. It appears from the calculation of M. Hassel that the population exceeds two millions, the government is therefore after Moscow, Kaluga and Kursk, the most populous of any in Russia, the inhabitants are chiefly composed of *Malo-Russians*, and the greater number are devoted to agriculture.

Towns, Monuments.

None of the towns are of much importance, *Pultava* or *Pultawa*, the capital, is peopled by 10,000 souls, and is chiefly remarkable on account of its monument in honour of Peter the Great, and the victory from which the Russians date the commencement of their military

* Topografitchii Opisanie Kharkowskoi Namestnitchestwa.

glory. A pillar has been erected over the graves of the Swedes, who were interred in the field of battle. *Periaslavl*, which contains 8000 souls, was at one time the residence of Russian princes. The sandy plains covered with *herniaria glabra*, extend to *Krementchuk*,* a town of 8000 inhabitants, several of whom are *Rosnoliki*, others are German colonists, and many are employed in different manufactories. The gay and cheerful villages are inadequate for the numerous population, and the great number of individuals reside in caravans and clay cottages.† The government of Tchernigof is less monotonous than the last, but its produce is not different, and the stranger observes the same crops, the same fruit and the same pasturage as in Pultava; but several districts are well wooded, coniferous trees are common in the forests, and ratifia and other liqueurs, particularly *woschnowska*, are made from the different kinds of cherries, that abound in the province. *Tchernigof* or *Tchernigou*, the ancient metropolis of a dutchy, is peopled by 10,000 souls; but *Neschin* or *Nejin* is generally considered the most commercial city in the Ukraine, the inhabitants amount to 16,000, it possesses several silk manufactories, and carries on a great trade in Greek wines, Crimean salt and other articles, that are exported from Asia and the Archipelago. Merchants from Poland and the remote provinces of Russia repair to its fairs. Gluckow contains 9000 individuals, and the population of *Novgorod-Seversk* is less than 8000, but it was once the chief town in the principality of Severia. The capital of Kiew has been already mentioned, most of the other towns are insignificant. Neither *Uman* and its stately castle, nor Tcherkassy, the ancient metropolis of the Cossacks, contains more than 3000 souls. The nobility reside at their country seats, and the cottages in the villages, although neatly painted, are constructed of clay and the branches

Government of Tchernigof.

Trade of Nejin.

Government.

* *Krementchuk* is derived from *kremen*, a flint, there are extensive beds of flint in the cretaceous hills on the banks of the Dnieper.

† Heym cited by Georgi.

BOOK CX.

of trees. The Jews monopolize the retail trade; they are the landlords of almost all the inns, and their houses are more substantially built.

Government of Podolia.

Although Podolia, according to its new limits, is much diminished, it is still the most fruitful province in the Polish Ukraine. Many sheep and fattened oxen are every year exported, and so much corn is raised above what is consumed by the inhabitants, that it is often difficult to find a market for the redundant produce. The average return of wheat in the neighbourhood of Ussitza is as fifteen to one. The forests which abound in oak, terminate near a line drawn from Raschkow on the Dnieper to Uman.* The land is indented by the valleys through which the rivers flow, and varied by waterfalls, caverns and romantic landscapes.† Beds of alabaster, gypsum and schistous argil extend in different directions, and the vine grows in espaliers in the orchards and gardens. The Podolian tobacco is the best in Russia, and forms the source of a lucrative contraband trade. The peasants have many hives, fish abound in the rivers, the saiga, a sort of gazelle, the sonslik, a species of rat, and the stork are the most common wild animals in the province. *Kaminic* or *Kamenetz* with its castle on a rock is still a fortress, but its military importance was lost when Choczim and Bender became Russian towns; its population does not exceed 6000 souls, and it is the residence of the provincial authorities. The commerce of the country appears to be concentrated in *Mogelew* and *Szarygrod*, the former possesses 7000, and the latter 6700 inhabitants. *Bar* and *Targowiez*, which have acquired a sad celebrity in the history of Poland, were the seats of two confederations. A colony of German manufacturers has been established near the large castle of *Tulezyn*, and the industry and ability of these foreigners enable them to contend with advantage against the other inhabitants. *Iskorest*, which is near the sources of the Bog, was once the capital of the *Drewlians*, a Sla-

Animals.

* Tableau de la Pologne.

† See the views in the Atlas of *Marczynski*.

vonic people. The population of the whole province, according to the old tables of M. Marczinski, was equal to 93,000 nobles, 136,000 Jews, 197,000 Christians of the Latin, and 838,000 of the Greek Church; although it must have considerably increased since these tables were published, the relative proportions may have remained the same.

Government of Volhynia.

Volhynia or Wolhynia, which extends to the north of Podolia, is not less fruitful, and the mildness of the climate is partly owing to the low level. The vine does not succeed, but the temperature is not nearly so cold as in Swabia and Franconia. The chalky soil produces plenty of millet, secale, and wheat, which is heavier, and yields a greater quantity of flour than any other in Poland.* Iron, mill-stones, porcelain and salt-petre are wrought in the country, and amber has lately been obtained in the neighbourhood of Dubno. The pastures are abundant, and the lakes are shaded by lofty forests. Rosemary, asparagus and hops grow in a wild state, and are of a good quality. The *urus* is sometimes seen in the solitary forests on the north-west.†

Towns.

Most of the towns in Volhynia are ill built, *Berdyczew* or the largest is peopled by ten thousand individuals, but they are mostly Jews. All the inhabitants are very filthy, and the Israelites more so than the rest. Some German and Russian merchants amass wealth in the town, but they do not live differently from their neighbours. Dubno contains five or six thousand inhabitants, and it is frequented by the Polish nobility in the Ukraine, who meet there to enter into contracts, and to settle their commercial transactions. Jitomirz or the present metropolis has been embellished by government, but its population is not equal to five thousand souls. *Wodzimierz* or Wlodomir is now wholly inhabited by Jews, and it has given its name to the "kingdom of *Lodomiria*," which still forms a part of the

* Rzacynski's Natural History, p. 294.

† Aperçu général de la Volhynie et de l' Ukraine, Pétersbourg, 1804.

BOOK CX.

Territory of the Order of Malta.

Russian empire, although it was claimed by Austria in 1772. *Ostrog* is the capital of the country assigned to the knights of Malta, there is no other society in Europe which possesses so large a territory; it has, however, been divided among a few powerful individuals. Their province is the adoptive country of the Lubomiriski and Czartoriski, two illustrious Polish families, that were enriched by the ancient, and impoverished by the recent conquest of Malo-Russia. The Polish nobles in Volhynia are supposed to amount to 60,000 individuals.

We have now concluded the topographical account of Great and Little Russia. The task, we are well aware, was not an agreeable one, but it was difficult to avoid repetition, from the nature of the subject, and the resemblance between different provinces. We shall next offer some remarks on the moral and civil condition of the people that inhabit these regions.

Difference between the Great and Little Russians.

The German writers pay little attention to the difference between the Great and Little Russians, and suppose incorrectly, that they are now confounded, or form one and the same people. But the Little Russians or more ancient inhabitants retain their national physiognomy, and are easily distinguished by their finer features, dark and hazel eyes, loftier stature, and more harmonious language. The Great Russians, who are scattered over the wide territory inhabited by the Huns and Finns, must have necessarily mingled more with these races, which are essentially different from the Slavonic; hence the red or yellow hair, the coarser features, and the stupid expression of the Great Russian peasants. Their moral character is not the same. The Great Russian is selfish, cunning and avaricious, devoted to the chicanery of trade, and regardless of probity or faith with strangers. Peter the Great said truly, that had he allowed the Jews to enter his empire, they might have become the dupes of his subjects. The Little Russian, on the other hand, is indolent, confiding and generous, he never thinks of the morrow, enjoys

his mild climate, and seldom labours, unless compelled by necessity; he commits the management of his affairs to Jews, Greeks and Great Russians, who are always ready to impose on his simplicity. Although the Malo-Russians were long oppressed by the Poles, they are free, and not degraded, like the Great Russians, by the absence of those virtues which are incompatible with a state of bondage. The free and fierce nation of the Cossacks has been modified by its intercourse with strangers, but it is sprung from the Malo-Russians. The Weliko-Russian, on the contrary, has been fashioned for the yoke by the lapse of ages, and by his connexion with the Finns; still he is not always passive, his resistance, although often founded on frivolous pretexts, is obstinate and savage. It is not easy to contrast different nations, and the difficulty is increased in the present instance by the extent of the country, the number of inhabitants, and the inaccurate observations of travellers.

Freedom and Slavery.

The Russian peasants can support great fatigue, but they have not the same muscular strength as the people in some northern states. The privations of the peasantry, the long and painful marches of armies, and the severity of corporal punishments, are the almost incredible examples of what a Russian can endure. The soldier is often compelled to traverse desert steppes in which no water is found, or to pass the winter in subterranean huts without fire, and with no other provision than dry biscuit. A criminal, after suffering torments of which the very sight is appalling, returns to his prison without support, and without any apparent change in his gait. The muscular force of the Russians in the north, does not correspond with what may be termed their passive strength. A greater number of hands are employed in Russia than in other countries, to raise a weight, or to carry a burden. An English sailor often does more work in Petersburg than three stout natives. They may perhaps be more indolent, but the real cause is the want of vigour and activity, an indication

Force and patience of the Russians.

BOOK CX.

of their Finnic descent. The Russians are not a tall people, and although rarely well proportioned, few of them are deformed, which may perhaps be owing to their open and unconfined dress, the great exercise that they take, and the fact that weak children generally fall a sacrifice to the hardy way in which they are brought up.

Appearance.

The characteristic traits vary, but most of the Russians have white teeth, small and dull eyes, a narrow forehead and strong beard. The hair is of every shade from the dark chestnut to the red; but it is rarely black, stiff and shining, a deformity which is confined to the descendants of the Huns, Laplanders and Woguls. The last remark might be easily verified by travellers. The Russians have quick ears, their other senses are not improved by the climate and their manner of life; thus impaired vision is commonly attributed to the continuance of the snow, and a vitiated taste to the nature of their food.

Women.

A fine skin and a fresh complexion are, in the opinion of the natives, all that is necessary in female beauty. It cannot be denied that the Russian women have a brighter complexion than the inhabitants of other countries, and yet it is equally true that rouge is nowhere employed in such profusion as in Russia; it is not confined to the higher orders, it is used by every class in the community. The women are not incased in stays, and such is the effect of prejudice, that strangers consider their waists too large, and out of proportion with the rest of the figure. Girls are marriageable at the age of twelve or thirteen, and according to the common opinion, the effect of climate is counteracted by the frequent use of vapour baths, which, if they accelerate the developement of the body, bring on infallibly the marks of premature old age. The charms of youth soon disappear, and the women rarely retain their looks a few years after their marriage. Whatever may be the cause, whether the immoderate use of rouge and the vapour bath, or rather the savage tyranny of their husbands, the remains of beauty are often no longer discerni-

ble at an age when the other sex is hardly arrived at manhood.

Marriage ceremonies.

The singular and strange marriage ceremonies of the Russians are now partly abolished. It was customary for two families to settle an alliance before the parties had seen each other. The bride was then examined by a council of elderly matrons, who took off her clothes, indicated her bodily defects, and prescribed what was necessary to correct them. The lady was crowned on the day of her wedding with a garland of absinth, and when the priest tied the nuptial knot, the clerk sprinkled a handful of hops on her head, and expressed a wish that she might be as fruitful as that plant. The last ceremony is not abolished. Those who visit a woman after she has been in travail, must slip a piece of money under her pillow; the sum varies according to the wealth or rank of the individual, and it is only exacted from married persons, because they, it is supposed, may one day profit by the custom. That practice is still common in central Russia; it is observed by all the inhabitants of Moscow, but it is no longer in use at Petersburg.

Funerals.

The opinions which the catholics entertained about two centuries ago, concerning the soul after death, were not more absurd than the present notions of the people in Russia. When a man dies, a priest is hired, who prays over the corpse, purifies it with incense, and sprinkles it with holy water, until it is consigned to the dust. The priest writes a passport for heaven, which is signed by the bishop, and in his absence by some other dignitary. The paper is put into the bier between the hands of the deceased, and the lowering of the coffin into the grave is the signal for loud cries and horrid yells. The attendants return to the house of the defunct, and forget their grief at a feast, which is kept up by the higher orders for forty days. The priest delivers prayers over the grave during the period of festivity; for although the people do not believe in purgatory, the dead, it is imagined, are consoled by these exor-

BOOK CX.

cisms, and arrive with less fatigue at the end of their long journey.

Religious festivals.

The pompous ceremonies and rigid fasts of the Greek church are strictly observed by the people and the nobles. A dismal lent is succeeded by the festival of the resurrection, and the fasting and mourning are soon forgotten in mirth and amusement. The majestic spectacle has been described by travellers. The noise of sonorous bells is compared to the rolling of distant thunder; the lustre of many thousand wax lights, and the dazzling splendour of the clerical costume add to the novelty of the scene. Joy reigns, and the cry of *Christos voskress*, Christ is resuscitated, resounds throughout the empire. Such a festival is not uninteresting, although the noise, parade and ostentation accord ill with our religious notions. The Greek church accommodates itself to the habits of a sensual nation, and sanctions whatever may diminish the privations of a rigorous climate. The relaxed state of clerical discipline is less excusable; the *popes* or fathers grant absolution to any that ask it, and many priests are tainted with the gross vices of the people. The nobles wear crosses and amulets, which they call their gods, and superstition is substituted for piety.

Heathen ceremonies.

Some heathen ceremonies of a harmless nature are still observed in Little Russia. The twenty-fourth of June is the festival of *Koupo*, the young then assemble round a tree decorated with ribbons, and a table covered with sweetmeats. The anniversary of *Koliada* is celebrated in the month of December, and national songs are sung in the towns and in the country.*

Dress.

The dress of the peasantry in Little Russia does not differ from that of the Poles, and the *kourtka* is worn with the *charavaris* or wide pantaloon. The costume of the peasants in Great Russia is different. Sheep skins descend in winter to the middle of the leg, and a cloth coat is attached by a girdle in summer. The stockings are

* MS. notes of M. Choris.

made of cloth, the shoes of bark; a round hat is common in summer, and a fur cap in winter. The neck is always bare, a very strange custom in so cold a climate, but it is not unfavourable to health. A knife and a hatchet are suspended from the girdle.

Dress of the women.

The women, at one time adored, at another treated like slaves,* contrive to vary and embellish their costume. The *sarafan* or light robe is worn under a pelisse, but the most costly ornaments are reserved for the head-dress. A band, which is adorned with pearls or precious stones of different colours, and resembles a tiara or open crown, is generally worn in Novgorod and the adjoining governments. The peasant girls in the western provinces wear a fillet, like the Spaniards, but it is studded with paste or mock pearls. A sort of bonnet, which rises perpendicularly in the form of a crescent, is not uncommon in Oka and in the neighbourhood of Kasimow. The dress of the women in Little Russia from Voronez to Kiovia and Volhynia, is of a particular character; nets, ribbons and flowers are bound round the head, a chain is suspended from the neck, and red boots correspond with a petticoat of the same colour.

Use of rouge.

The antiquated dames in the ancient court of Versailles, never disguised themselves so effectually with rouge, as the fair Russians of the present day. The mineral compositions which they purchase, are exported from the east and the Levant; but the women among the peasantry are satisfied with a cheaper and less deleterious kind, that is extracted from plants and roots.

Dwellings.

The houses of the peasants are all built after the same plan; the inner court forms an oblong, and is surrounded by sheds; a hay loft is commonly erected at one extremity, and a kitchen garden extends beyond it. The materials for building are trees, that are laid horizontally above each other; the interstices are filled with moss and not with bark, as Mr. Coxe affirms. The family chamber is generally on

* *Bion kak choubou, i loublou kak douchou.* Literally, *I beat you as my slave, I love you as my heart.*

BOOK CX.

the second story, though not unfrequently on a level with the ground. The inmates ascend by a stair or ladder; a stove takes up a fourth part of the room, and men, women and children sleep together in a recess or alcove, which communicates with the chamber. The principal apartment forms a square of fifteen or twenty feet, the height varies from six to eight, and the ordinary temperature from 70° to 80° of Fahrenheit.

Furniture.

The furniture consists of wooden wares and earthen pots, indeed it might be difficult to mention a people whose houses are so ill and so scantily furnished. A wretched bed or pallet is a proof of wealth by no means common among the peasantry of the nobles; the serfs of the crown, though not so poor, are equally indifferent about cleanliness or comfort. The meanest cottage and the most sumptuous palace are adorned with figures of the saints; the Russians bow to them when they come into a house, pray to them every evening and morning, prostrate themselves before them, and kiss the ground.

Food.

Pork, fish, soup made of salted cabbage, mushrooms and pepper are ordinary dishes, and they require, it is thought, some glasses of brandy to digest them. But the people have often recourse to a lighter diet, and the inhabitants of many districts live partly on eggs, milk and fruit. The effect of ardent spirits are rendered less deleterious by the great consumption of anti-scorbutic fruits, and of *quas* or light acidulated beer without hops. The *braga* or white beer, and the *wymorosli* or fermented and frozen wine are not very strong, but unwholesome spirits and a variety of sweet liqueurs act as a sort of poison.

Diseases.

The Russians are a healthy people; the diseases prevalent in the country are seldom dangerous, and most of them give way to a light diet and simple remedies. The women bear children without much pain, and the number of still-born infants is not nearly so great in proportion as in some European countries. It appears not only from the writings of travellers, but of Russian authors, that syphilis is common in the towns and in the country, and that the

virulence of the disease, and the chances of contagion are increased by the severity of the climate. It is not easy, however, to reconcile their opinion with the numerous instances of great longevity.

Remedies.

The popular remedies may excite the surprise of our readers. Leeks, onions and Spanish pepper mixed with strong spirits are the great panacea. The nature of the malady is of secondary importance, the cure is equally applicable to all. Vapour baths are prescribed to invalids, certain plants are efficacious against rheumatism, and gunpowder or sublimate of mercury, according to the nature of the complaint, are dissolved in alcohol, and given to the peasantry.

Baths.

The public baths are ill built, and generally situated in the neighbourhood of a stream or river. A court, in which benches are placed, supersedes the necessity of dressing rooms. The temperature of the bathing chamber varies from 104° to 122° of Fahrenheit, but it may be augmented by pouring water every five minutes on the stones of the stove or furnace, and the last step to which the bathers descend is occasionally raised to the temperature of 131°. Many persons, on quitting the bath, plunge into the adjoining river, like the young Romans who swam in the lakes, after leaving the gymnasia. It is not uncommon for a Russian to go out of his vapour bath in winter, and cool himself in the snow, when the thermometer is 10° below zero. Our medical men are not over-cautious in advancing systems, theories and hypotheses, but they have not as yet approved of this custom, which is at least sanctioned by antiquity. The Lacedemonians and the Spaniards on the Douro used "*red-hot stones*" in the same manner as the Russians and Finns of the present day;* and the prejudices against Medea arose probably from a rash attempt to introduce the same custom which she is said to have invented, or rather to have observed among the people in the north.†

Vapour baths, known to the ancients.

* Strabo, III. p. 154. Celsus, L. II. c. XVII. L. III. c. XXVII.

† Bættiger, Vasengemahlde, c. II.

BOOK CX.

Amusements.

The amusements of the Russians are now curtailed. The patriarch is no longer conducted on an ass by the czar, and the people no longer shout their *hosanias*. Ambassadors, deputies and the representatives of different governments are not now accompanied by cavalcades of a thousand persons offering presents and tribute to the autocrat, and receiving in exchange the honourable distinction of wearing robes and caftans. But the Russian delights as much as ever in noisy gaiety, and his admiration of parade is nowise diminished. No Frenchman, and consequently the inhabitant of no other country in Europe, dances or sings so frequently as the Russian. The youth are trained to gymnastic exercises, the old and the grave are often mounted on wooden horses, and indulge in the recreation of the ring, or in the pastime of see-saw. The Russian mountains are common in more than one European kingdom, but those in Russia are superior to all others, in as much as the descent on the ice is safer and more rapid. The natives vary the exercise by descending on their skates, an amusement which is not free from danger, although more extraordinary feats are performed by the Norwegian skaters. Many mountains of the same sort are erected in Moscow during the carnival; they are encompassed with shops, coffee-houses and temporary theatres, in which after-pieces are acted. The inhabitants dance in the open air in the middle of winter.

Russian mountains.

Domestic industry.

The Russians are more distinguished by their imitative than inventive talents, and the peasants in many districts are obliged to make whatever they require. Ploughs, carts, household furniture, shoes, boots, hats, linen and woollen stuffs, stockings and gloves are all the products of domestic or individual industry in the greater part of central Russia. The nobles turn the mechanical aptitude of their serfs to good account. The master enjoins one to be a mason, a second for the same reason becomes a tailor, and a third is dubbed a painter. Each man labours in his new vocation, and according to the way in which his work is executed, he is rewarded with brandy, or punished with the

lash. The division of labour is no principle in Russian economy; different arts are exercised by the same individual, and the confusion of trades is exemplified in the house market, one of the curiosities which Moscow possesses in common with other great towns. A large square in the suburbs is the place where the market is held, a variety of materials for building, and houses wholly made of wood are usually exhibited. He who wants a house, repairs to the market, tells how many rooms are required, examines the quality of the wood, which is carefully marked, and concludes a bargain. The seller generally agrees to remove and raise the building on the place that the purchaser wishes. Thus it often happens that a house is bought, transported, erected and inhabited within the space of a single week. It must not be imagined that such dwellings are durable; they are seldom habitable any length of time, and it is a very easy task to demolish them in a few hours. Beams and laths, for the construction of brick buildings, stoves, and different articles of furniture, carriages and wagons, are sold in the neighbourhood of the market.

House-markets.

The manner of life, and the habits of the Russians depend in some degree on their civil condition. Other distinctions have been introduced by legal enactments, but the body of the nation is divided into two great classes—the free husbandmen and the slaves. The *odnodvorzi* or the proprietors of small hereditary estates may purchase serfs under a fictitious name, but they are liable to be arbitrarily transported from one province to another. The *posadki* or free farmers cannot possess land, and the freedmen agree to perform statute labour or different services, and grant generally personal obligations for the price of their liberty. The free Russians are chiefly composed of these classes; their wealth varies according to their industry and resources, but few amongst them have to struggle against poverty or want. The peasantry of the crown hold the next rank after the freedmen, and they are divided into serfs of the empire, of the domains and different stations, they are exempt from statute labour, but subject to the *obrok*, a

Different classes of peasants.

BOOK CX.

tax which depends on their condition and different provincial enactments. The serfs of the mines, like those of the crown, are mildly and humanely treated; their intellectual degradation is a calamity of which they are unconscious, their physical wants are supplied, the peaceful tenour of their lives is rarely disturbed, they have not to serve rigid masters, they are strangers to the privations of poverty. The greatest evil in their condition is the uncertainty of its continuance, and those who are to-day the vassals of the crown, may be to-morrow the serfs of nobles and landed proprietors. It is unlawful for the purchaser to punish them without a just cause, but the laws are often disregarded, and it is not safe for a slave to complain against his lord. The slave of a noble is sometimes flogged until his life is endangered, his daughters are often the victims of an inhuman master's lust, and his condition is little better than that of a negro. It must not be inferred that every slave is exposed to the same hardships, all the masters are not alike, and many peasants are more fortunate than others.

Merchants and tradesmen.

Little can be said of one class in the nation, because little is known of the individuals that compose it. Few travellers visit the real Muscovite burgesses, indeed it is more difficult to be admitted into their society than into the circles of a frivolous nobility. The trading citizens are active, sober and indefatigable in the pursuit of gain. They retain the customs which they borrowed many ages ago from the Armenians, the Chinese and the inhabitants of the Hanseatic towns. They are distinguished by the same assiduity in their calling, the same perseverance, and the same minute care in keeping accounts; but they are much more ignorant than the old German burgesses; and it is not to be expected that men of such habits, and who receive so imperfect an education can be at all solicitous about moral or political improvement.

Dress.

It is not long since they dwelt in the same sort of houses, wore the same coarse dress, and lived on the same kind of food as the wealthy peasants. But changes have

taken place of late years, and the fat and fair wives of the citizens now indulge in the luxury of tea. The same ladies appear in their droskies on gala days, and display their head-dresses of matted pearls, their diamond ear-rings and fine Turkish or Persian shawls, which descend in light folds to the feet. Those that do not admire the Asiatic dress, wear the embroidered *feredja*, and the national costume is not destitute of elegance or grace.* Travellers observe Russian society in the saloons of the nobles, and mix rarely with the citizens or the commercial inhabitants of towns, although the wealth of the latter renders them influential, and although their numbers are rapidly increasing. Much has been said of their Punic faith and fraudulent dealings. But the writers who accuse them so unsparingly and in such vague and general terms, are in all probability ignorant of their character. We ask if great commercial undertakings, long voyages and well-established credit are the fruits of dishonesty. We ask too if the burgesses under *Kosma Minin*, were not as well as the peasantry under Poyarski, and the boyars under Troubetzkoi, the liberators of Russia. Engelhardt of Smolensko, a generous citizen, sacrificed his life in the last war, rather than betray his sovereign and his country.

Clergy.

The sons of the peasants and the burgesses make up the great body of the clergy, and the *popes* are accused by travellers of ignorance, drunkenness and immorality, these accusations are generally exaggerated, and seldom rightly applied. The maxims of the Greek church are as unfavourable to the diffusion of knowledge, as they are conducive to the growth of superstition, and although the priests are imbued with the spirit of their order, they are not without many redeeming virtues.

Marriage of the priests.

The Russian priesthood is almost as widely different from the catholic as it is from the protestant clergy, indeed another order of the same sort is not to be found in Europe, and it is on account of its singularity, not unworthy

* Clarke's Travels, I. 92.

BOOK CX.

of notice. The marriage of a priest is not only lawful, but indispensable according to the maxims of the church, which takes in the true and literal sense, the famous passage of Saint Paul, and rejects the ingenious but false interpretation of the Romanists. A Russian priest cannot be ordained before marriage, and he is not permitted to espouse a widow or any one guilty of a flagrant crime. If his wife dies, he must resign his living; the bishops of the diocese can, in extraordinary instances, authorize him to continue it, but such acts are irregular, and only justified by the necessity of the case. The secular priest thus deprived of his cure, enters into a convent, and becomes a *hiero-monaque.* It is from these dismal retreats, where penance, fasting and prayer are strictly enjoined, that the bishops and archbishops are commonly chosen. The priests or popes are much respected, nay, many of them are venerated by the peasantry. Their influence is founded on their superior knowledge; they only read the literary and scientific journals published in Russia, and consequently it is from them that information and new discoveries in agriculture and the arts are communicated to the people. The popes as fathers of families have worldly interests, to which the catholic priests, from the opposite nature of their institutions, are supposed to be strangers. A clergyman educates one of his children for the church, another is bred to arms, a third is sent into the navy, and some distinguished naval officers are the sons of curates. The connexion, on the other hand, between the secular priesthood and the monks, renders the former more venerable in the estimation of the people. The austere and simple manners, the unfeigned charity and godly lives of several archbishops are cited in order that others may be roused to imitate them. The dignitaries of the Russian church are now desirous of cultivating their talents and acquiring knowledge; their inferiors are eager to follow their example, and the indiscriminate censure of travellers is no longer applicable to most of them.

Nobles.

It is difficult to give an impartial account of the Russian

nobility; the degrading vices, the scandalous anecdotes and the unfavourable opinion, which almost every traveller has formed of that class, are apt to bias our judgment. But these strangers are not impartial, and their contradictions are so apparent that we cannot place much confidence in their statements. Thus, one writer calls them "sharpers and pickpockets," another laughs at "their credulity and simplicity," a third observes "a Scythian ferocity in their manners," and a fourth discovers "the abject servility of the Neapolitans." That the hideous character made up of such opposite qualities must be fabulous, is at least some consolation in contemplating it. We ourselves have known very worthy Russian nobles, and one of them has been kind enough to communicate his opinion on this important subject.

Bad government.

"The Russian nobility," says a well-informed member of that body, "has had the double misfortune of remaining long under a despotic yoke, and of possessing at the same time an arbitrary power. The privileges of the nobles were not defined before the time of Alexander, and their legal existence commenced at the same recent period. Little attention is at present paid to the enactments of government in the central provinces, and the neglect arises from the nullity or venality of tribunals, from the fact that a thousand acts of oppression may be committed, which are never heard of in the capital, and from a criminal indulgence to those who transgress the laws by which the protection of the people might be otherwise ensured. These defects in the body politic are the causes of many vices in the individual members. Many noble families live the greater part of the year on their estates, or in the neighbourhood of their serfs; their children receive rarely a regular education, the universities are ill attended, and too far removed from many parts of the empire. The great majority of the young nobles enter into the military career, and are satisfied with the superficial attainments which fit them for their profession. The nobles of other countries are not nume-

BOOK CX.

rous, and they participate in the advantages of civilization; the rule is reversed in Russia, there is a whole people of nobles without the means of improvement. Their moral or intellectual inferiority is therefore the inevitable result of imperfect institutions.

Progress of Knowledge.

"Catharine permitted the introduction of foreign books, and that act tended more than any other to diffuse a taste for letters among her people. But Paul had hardly ascended the throne, before the Russian empire was intellectually isolated from the rest of the world. Priests and censors were stationed on all the frontiers, and they adhered to the strict terms of their commission. The booksellers gave up their agents in other countries, and if any ventured to import a new work, it was at the risk of capital punishment, or of enjoying always the *free air of Siberia.* It happened much about the same time that every letter, of which the police had the least suspicion, was opened at the post-office. Few strangers were suffered to remain in the empire, and the young Russians, who studied in Germany, were obliged to return within a given time, under pain of confiscation and perpetual exile. All the preposterous ordinances of a foolish tyrant were early abolished by Alexander. The young prince was anxious to enlighten his people, an improved system of public instruction was adopted, and the sanguine Russians predicted a new era in the history of their country. But the government was suddenly alarmed by suspicions, imaginary dangers and strange insinuations. The sage advisers of the czar suspended the new enactments, lest the revolutions which agitated the rest of Europe, might extend to Russia. As if it were not true that whatever tends to increase the knowledge, and improve the condition of the people, tends also to promote the safety and security of the state.

Court intrigues.

The love of intrigue, and the factious spirit of the courtiers, the cause of frequent revolutions, which retarded the progress of improvement, were repressed during a long and prosperous reign. Few nobles were involved in these crimes, the immense mass of the Russian nobility

remained far from the pleasures and cares of a court, and we believe, if sufficient allowance be made for the disadvantages against which they had to struggle, that an impartial judge might be more apt to admire them for their bravery, loyalty and honour, than to condemn them for failings to which all men in the same situation are equally liable. The indolence of the officers in the different garrisons is the source of many vices, and perhaps the greatest evil to which the empire is exposed."

Actual improvement.

These observations are well calculated to correct the erroneous statements of travellers, and to destroy many of the prejudices which have been formed against the Russian nobility. Whatever has been said against their indolent habits, their passion for gambling, their frivolous conversation, their custom of sleeping in the day-time, is inapplicable to those who can obtain any useful occupation; even the nobles that never leave their government, are gradually improving.

The slave is not so often menaced with excruciating and unlawful punishment, and his lord is no longer degraded below the level of humanity by debauchery and drunkenness. It cannot indeed be denied that the toilet and the dance have greater charms to a sensual and lively race like the Slavonic, than to a contemplative people like the Germans, but the social amusements of the Russian are refined by the influence of the fair sex. Travellers generally qualify the unlimited hospitality of the same people by the adjective *barbarous;* still those who know the climate and the localities must be convinced that their hospitality is not a proof of vain and prodigal magnificence, but of social and benevolent customs.

Language and dialects.

The Slavonians of Novgorod, as well as those of Kiow, were soon scattered over a very large territory, and the people had not sufficient time to form many dialects; at least we know of no others than those which bear the name of the two chief towns, and the *Weliki* and *Malo* Russian that were introduced at a later period. These dialects differ only from each other in the pronunciation and in some grammatical

BOOK CX.

constructions. The dialect of Moscow is formed from that of Novgorod, but it is more harmonious, it is the language of Russian authors, among whom might be cited eloquent writers, moralists and poets, but nothing great has hitherto been achieved in philosophy or science.

These two branches of the Russian nation resembled each other in their ancient superstitions. Kiow was the real Olympus of the Slavonic mythology; we observe in that worship, as in the superstition of the Finns and Lettons, a general personification of natural agents, but not, as in the more profound system of Scandinavian Odinism, an assumption of a contest between a good and evil principle. Simple, rude and wholly material, the Slavonic mythology is made up of many divinities and genii. *Perun*, the god of lightning and thunder, the dispenser of the harvests, the regulator of the seasons, and the supreme master of the gods, is evidently the *Perkun* of the Lithuanians, and the *Perendi* of the Albanians or ancient Illyrians. Thus there must have been some resemblance in the ancient superstition of nations now far removed and widely different from each other. But Perun had little in common with the other divinities. *Morskoi-Tsar*, or the king of the sea, is imperfectly known, we are even ignorant of his real name.

Vital Fire. *Znitsch*, the living fire, was adored at Novgorod, and it is remarkable that his name, like that of Schiwa, may signify the destroyer.* Many of the deities are allegorical beings of no very mysterious nature. *Korscha* or the Bacchus of the Slavonians, was crowned with a garland of hops. *Lada* or beauty, was the mother of *Lel* or *Lelo*, desire, and also of *Polelia* or love, from whom is sprung Did or Dziat, the genius that protects children. It is ridiculous to seek the proofs of a profound philosophy in these simple fables. Some doubts exist concerning *Led*, the god of war, and *Koliada* or *Koleda*, the god of peace; according to a different hypothesis, they were the divinities of summer and winter. *Dazebog* lavished the treasures that are con-

* *Zniszeze* is a Polish verb, which signifies to annihilate.

cealed under the earth, *Kupalo*, the goddess of fruits, was honoured with processions, and *Wolos*, the guardian of flocks, punished those who violated their oath. *Pogoda*, the god of fine weather and the spring, was crowned with blue flowers, and soared on azure wings above the rising plants. *Simzerla*, the young goddess with the girdle of roses, whose breath is fragrant as the lily, was ever faithful to her lover Pogoda. The icy garments, the hoar-frost mantle, and the snow crown of *Zemergla*, explain her attributes. *Tchernoibog* or the black god is the reputed author of death and every evil; sacrifices were offered to conciliate his favour, and his pity was occasionally excited by lugubrious songs. Many inferior genii roamed on the earth, the *Rusalki* or green-haired nymphs haunted the rivers, the *Leschie* resembled satyrs, they could diminish or add to their stature. The serpents adored in Lithuania were worshipped by the Russians; they were the *Demovie-Duschi* or familiar demons of the houses. We have omitted to mention *Kikimora* or the goddess of dreams, the *Koltki* or the spirits of the night, and *Polkan*, who was represented as a centaur, and styled by some authors, the Slavonic Vulcan.*

Divinities of the spring.

The above enumeration of the Slavonian divinities accords with the statement of Procopius, an author that lived in the sixth century. "The Slavi and Antes," says that writer, "adored a single god, who commands the thunder, and governs the universe; to this being are sacrificed bulls and different victims. They have no doctrine concerning destiny, but the sick and dying vow offerings in the faith of purchasing health. The rivers are sacred and inhabited by nymphs and spirits, that often foretell future events."†

Testimony of Procopius.

We observe, in the above passage, the principal traits of the Slavonic mythology, as it is represented by national authors. It is vain to look for the traces of a *dualism*

Supposed dualism.

* *Hlinka*, Drewniaia relihia, &c. Mitan, 1814. Kaisarow, Slaviansk Mithologia. Moscow, 1807.

† Procopius de Bello Gothico.

BOOK CX.

transported into Russia from the east, or to follow the subtleties of German writers, who can discover an opposition between the powers of light and darkness, between *Bielbog* the white god, and Tschernoibog, the black divinity that has been already mentioned. The image of Bielbog covered with blood and flies, indicates his subordinate rank in the ancient and truly national system of the Slavonians on the Dnieper. But that system was not founded, like the Edda of the Scandinavians, on the belief of two adverse principles; no mention is made of the fabulous contests between the good and wicked gods, no drama is descriptive of the war which ended in the defeat of the former. These notions were too profound and too gloomy for the Slavonic race. Such a doctrine, if it was ever acknowledged in their mythology, must have been introduced by strangers, particularly the Goths, who were long the chiefs and tyrants of the Slavonians.

Temples and Holy Places.

The eastern Slavonians or Russians had few temples, and their religious ceremonies were not accompanied with much pomp before the time of Wladimir, the last heathen sovereign. That prince opposed Christianity, collected the idols, and adorned the temples, which he demolished after his conversion. But the Slavonians had their holy places in thick forests, where the priests and the augurs were concealed from the profane multitude. The Dnieper and the Bog were the sacred rivers of the Kiovians, and the Wolchowa of the Novgordians.

BOOK CXI.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. European Russia. Seventh Section. Lithuanian Provinces.

Origin of the Lithuanians.

It remains for us to describe the former Lithuanian provinces, and to complete our account of the Russian empire. These provinces form a separate section; their inhabitants and the ancient Pruczi made up a branch of the Wendes, and their religion and dialect were so different from the other tribes of the same people, that they were long considered a distinct race. The learned Gatterer supposed them the descendants of the ancient Sarmatians, an opinion which we adopted and developed in a work on the subject;* but we have since ascertained, from a more accurate knowledge of the Lithuanian language, that the hypothesis must be abandoned, or at all events greatly modified.

Chronicles.

The Lithuanian and Russian traditions are apparently contradictory, or at least, they are of a comparatively recent date, and throw no light on the origin of the people. Kwialowicz, the historian of the Lithuanians, says that an Italian colony landed on the coasts about the year 900. The country was partly civilized by these foreigners, who introduced the great number of Latin words, that are still used in the Lithuanian language. The names of the illustrious exiles are recorded, they were *Palæmon Libo, Julian Dorsprungo,*† Prosperus and Cæsar *Colonna,* Hector and Ursinus *Rosa.* Several kings were sprung from them, and

* Tableau de la Pologne, 1807.

† Dorsprungo is evidently a Gothic or a German name.

BOOK CXI.

they ruled over Samogitia and Lithuania Proper. *Ziwibund*, one of these monarchs, devastated Russia in 1089, another prince of the same name defeated the Poles a century afterwards, and *Ringold*, who died in 1240, was king of Lithuania, Mazovia, Polesia, Czernigovia, Samogitia, Courland and other Russian provinces. The possessions of the Lithuanians, according to the Russian chronicles, were confined in ancient times to Courland, Samogitia and a narrow territory on the east of the last country. Nestor, the most ancient historian of Russia, mentions *Littwa* in his list of the provinces, and *Polock* or *Polotsk* in the number of the towns which prince Oleg freed in 907, from the tribute that had been paid to the "Greek emperors." *Polock* was in the last years of the tenth century, the residence of Rogvold, whose daughter Rogneda was sought in marriage by Wladimir the Great. The princess having refused her consent, Wladimir made war on her father, destroyed the capital, put the king and his two sons to death, and then obtained the hand of the captive Rogneda. The same monarch repudiated his wife, but not until she had borne him several children. Polosk was by that time rebuilt, and Rogneda and her eldest son Isaslaw were permitted to reside in it. The town and the principality, which comprehended the whole of Lithuania, and the greater part of Livonia, were ceded to the princess by Wladimir. Isaslaw and his descendants governed the country, until the dynasty became extinct in the thirteenth century. The great dutchy of Lithuania was then formed, and Ringold was the first who took the new title in 1239. The genealogical annals of Russia *(Rodoslownie)* make Ringold the descendant of the ancient sovereigns of Polotsk, but that assertion is not confirmed by any evidence. The great dukes of Lithuania became in time masters of Polotsk and all the Russian towns in the ancient principality.

Russian chronicles.

Formation of the Grand Dutchy.

Whether these obscure traditions be admitted or rejected, it is certain that the two chronicles accord from the time that Ringold extended the possessions of the Lithuanians.

Vittenes, a native of Samogitia, obtained, after more than one revolution, about the end of the thirteenth century, the title of great duke, and left his states to his son *Gedemin*, who built Wilna and made it his residence. The same sovereign defeated Stanislas near Kiow, took his capital, and became, says Nestor, great prince of Russia. *Jahellon*, his grandson, who is better known by the name of *Jagellon*, offered his hand to queen Hedvige, the only daughter of Lewis, king of Poland. The prince promised at the same time to embrace Christianity, to convert all his people, to unite Lithuania to Poland, and to reconquer the provinces wrested from the crown. These generous offers were very pleasing to the Poles, who sent a solemn embassy to the great duke. Jagellon took the name of Uladislas, after his baptism at Cracow in 1386; he then married Hedvige, and was crowned king of Poland. The prince returned the following year to Lithuania, converted several thousands of his subjects, founded the bishopric of Wilna, and regulated ecclesiastical discipline. Uladislas conferred on his cousin Vitold or Alexander, the title of great duke of Lithuania, in 1392, but its junction with Poland was not thus retarded, for the king himself retained the sovereignty of the dutchy. The union between the two states was confirmed in 1401, by an act of the diet assembled at Wilna. Vitold took Samogitia from the Teutonic order in 1408. A second diet was held in the small town of Horodlo in 1413, and the Lithuanians were declared liable to the same taxes, and subject to the same laws as the Poles. The arms of the two nations were united, and the great dukes of Lithuania were appointed by the kings of Poland. It was also enacted that the Poles and Lithuanians should elect a king in the event of the sovereign dying without children or lawful heirs. The alliance concluded in 1413, was renewed in 1499, and, to render the leading article more explicit, it was added that the Lithuanians could not elect their dukes without the concurrence of the Poles, nor the Poles their king without the consent of the Lithuanians.

Jagellon.

BOOK CXI.

Act of 1559.

The knights of the sword ceded to the king of Poland, as great duke of Lithuania, that part of Livonia which still belonged to them in 1561. The new duke of Courland then became tributary to the Polish crown. The Poles and Lithuanians held a diet at Lublin in 1559, and it was enacted that the respective countries formed one state or an elective monarchy, and that the right of election was vested in the two nations. The sovereign obtained the double title of king of Poland, and great duke of Lithuania. It was also decreed that the two people should have the same senate, and that deputies should be elected by both nations; the alliances and wars of the two states were declared to be common. The inhabitants of the kingdom and the dutchy paid their proportion in maintaining the auxiliary troops; in short, the government of the two countries was in every respect the same. It was made imperative by the laws of 1673, 1677 and 1685, that every third diet, with the exception of the elective coronation and convocation diets, should be held at Grodno in Lithuania.

Result.

It was thus, by many repeated attempts, that the princes of the *Jagellonic* dynasty accomplished an union between two nations equally warlike and equally independent. But Lithuania, though joined to Poland, retained always its distinct character. The nobles only adopted the manners of the Poles, and spoke their dialect. The great majority of the inhabitants never changed their customs, and the Samogitian peasants continued in the enjoyment of their personal freedom. Besides, the people in Lithuanian Russia, or the inhabitants of Witepsk, Mohilew, Meislaw, Minsk, Novogrodek and Brzesk, spoke the Rousniac, and adhered to the tenets of the Greek church. Thus, while Poland was more than once dismembered, the people in these provinces were always disposed to separate from a nation with which they had never been identified. It is also well known that they refused to join the insurrection of 1812, or to declare themselves in favour of the French.

Russian governments.

The official divisions, with the exception of Witepsk, which has been already considered, are the government of Mohilew, or the south of White Russia, 2d, the government of Minsk, which includes the west of White Russia, the south-east of *Black Russia*, and the greater part of Polesia, 3d, the government of *Grodno*, or the remaining part of Polesia and Black Russia, and the south of Lithuania, or the province of *Troki*, 4th, the district of *Bialystock* or the ancient Podlachia, 5th, the government of Wilna, or the north of Lithuania and Samogitia.

Samogitia. Physical description.

There is little in the present state of these governments, which is likely to interest the reader. We shall therefore chiefly confine our attention to the ancient provinces and the national character of the people. *Samogitia* is called *Szamait* by the natives. The whole territory is not large, but it is well wooded; the land consists of a rich clay, and yields immense harvests of flax and lint. These plants arrive at greater perfection than in any other part of Russia.* The bees swarm in the forests, and the honey and wax are not inferior to any in Europe. The elk and the urus wandered formerly among the flocks, and there are still too many bears, wolves and other wild animals. The large snakes that frequent the woods were worshipped by the ancient Samogitians, a superstition which is not yet wholly abolished.†

The horses are small, and the oxen are not large, but both are of a hardy race, and there are a great number in the country. The husbandmen cannot be induced to give up their light wooden ploughs; the iron plough, which was once tried, is supposed to be an instrument of evil omen. If the wheat crops sometimes fail, it must be imputed to the imperfect system of husbandry. The seed is generally put into the ground about three weeks before Pentecost, and such is the heat of summer that it is commonly ripe in less than two months. The grain is cut in

* *Starovolski*, Polonia, p. 66. *Rzaczinski*, &c.

† Lasicius de diis Samogitarum, p. 55.

BOOK CXI.

the morning and in the evening, and the reapers repose in the middle of the day.

Towns and houses.

The towns in Samogitia are too insignificant to require a minute description. *Miedniki*, *Rosienie* and a few others are peopled by a thousand inhabitants. *Kieydani* is the only one which contains 5000 souls. The dwellings are long and narrow cottages, built with the trunks of trees, and covered with moss, bark or straw. The roof tapers to a narrow aperture, from which the smoke escapes. The fire is placed in the middle of the dwelling; the men and women remain in one extremity, and the other is occupied by oxen, horses, pigs, goats and sheep. These animals, it may be readily believed, do not shun the approach of man; indeed so great is the familiarity which a common residence inspires, that they frequently make free with the food of the two-legged inhabitants. The same simplicity or rudeness is observable in the dress and furniture of the people. Their shoes are made of the bark of trees, and their wooden carts are joined together without any iron; it is not customary to grease the wheels, and a creaking noise announces at a distance the coming of their vehicles.

Samogitians.

The country appears to be peopled by two distinct classes of inhabitants; the first are a tall race of men, probably descended from the Goths and Wendes, who settled in the province at a very remote epoch; the others are short but stoutly made, robust and hardy like the Lettonians. The Samogitian women marry commonly between twenty-four and thirty, while those in White Russia, according to the statement of a very intelligent traveller, are often marriageable at the age of ten. The higher orders in Lithuania and Samogitia, says the same writer, are as much distinguished by their chastity, as the Russians are notorious for the want of that virtue.* It is certain that small bells were at one time attached to the dress of the Samogitian girls, a precaution which was intended to pre-

* Herberstein. See Pistorius, t. I. p. 151.

Manners.

vent them from leaving any place without apprizing their parents or their sage and elderly relatives. The ancient marriage ceremonies were not confined to the province, but used by the Courlanders, Lithuanians and Prussians, and some of their customs were not unlike those of the Greeks and Romans. Two friends of the bridegroom carried away the seemingly reluctant bride from her father's house. She was led on the wedding day three times round the fire place of her future husband; it was then customary to wash her feet, and with the same water that had been used for that purpose, the bridal bed, the furniture and all the guests were sprinkled. Honey was put to her lips, a significant ceremony, by which she was admonished to abstain from domestic strife. Lastly, her eyes were covered with the nuptial veil, the attendants conducted her to all the doors in the house, she knocked at each of them with her right foot, and rye, oats, barley, peas, beans and poppies were scattered in every apartment. The priest, who diffused these emblems of abundance, told the bride to continue steadfast in her religion, and assiduous in the discharge of her domestic duties; these virtues, though no apparent connexion subsists between them, were supposed equally effectual in repelling the evils of poverty. When the ceremonies were ended, the bride sat down to a feast, and joined afterwards in the dance, her partners were permitted to cut off adroitly one or two locks of her hair, and young girls conducted her to the marriage bed.

Ancient worship.

The Samogitians contended long against the Teutonic knights, and gained personal freedom by their valiant resistance. They adopted Christianity with great reluctance, and that religion was mixed even in the sixteenth century with their ancient superstitions. *Auxteia-visa-gist*, the name of their supreme god, is derived from the Icelandic or Gothic. An Icelander of the present day would say *Haugsta-visa-geist*, to indicate a supreme and all-wise being. *Perkounos* was the god of thunder, a divinity not widely different from the *Peroun* of the Slavonians. *Ze-*

mienik, the tutelar deity of the country, was adored at the end of harvest, and a sacred fire was kindled on the summit of a hill in honour of *Pargni*, the god of the seasons. Many plants, trees and fountains were considered holy, and the *Givoite* or divine serpents were worshipped by all the inhabitants. One god presided over bees, another over geese, many more over different animals, and the care of pigs was committed to *Kremata*. Girls sacrificed to *Waisgantho*, the god of lint and flax; the person who performed the office of priestess, had to stand on one foot, and if she supported herself for an instant on the other, it was thought a bad omen of the future crop. A festival was instituted in honour of the dead. The simple and credulous Samogitians built a cottage in the thick recess of a forest, a table was placed in it, which was every year covered with viands, and surrounded with chairs. The shades were solemnly invited to leave their graves, and to partake of the dishes that were prepared for them.*

Honours rendered to the dead.

Other honours were paid to the deceased, as soon as a man expired, the relatives dressed the corpse in costly apparel, put it on a chair, drank its health in beer, and sung couplets, of which the following is a literal translation:

"Alas! why did you die? Had you not enough to eat and drink? Alas! why did you die? Had you not a good wife? Alas! why did you die? Had you not oxen, horses," &c. &c.

The attendants at the funeral rode on horseback, and brandished drawn swords in the air; the evil spirits were thus prevented from approaching the body. All the dead were deposited on a hill, and it was usual to lay beside them some pieces of money, together with a small quantity of bread and beer; if the person was a woman, a bunch of thread and a few needles were placed within her reach. The widow repaired to the tomb of her husband, and wept over it thirty consecutive days at sunrise and

* Lasicius, p. 50.

sunset. The other relatives of the deceased met at dinner on the third, sixth, ninth and fortieth days after the funeral. The deceased and other spirits were supposed to be present at these silent and mournful parties, and when the last of them was over, a priest rose up, swept the house with much gravity, and exclaimed, "O souls, you have eat, you have drank; now fly, now fly."

Lithuania. Physical details.

Lithuania Proper is a very low country; the greater part of it is covered with sand, and intersected with fens and marshes. Ferruginous ochre is found in all the peat mosses, and it yields forty parts of good iron out of every hundred. Copper pyrites and petrifactions, many of which resemble the roots of trees, are very common. Large and small blocks of granite, and pudding stones or conglomerated masses of different rocks mixed with white, red and different coloured quartz, are scattered over the sandy districts. The same country abounds in the remains of marine animals, madrepores and the rare coral of Gothland. Large pieces of yellow amber may be mentioned among its productions. These facts are sufficient to excite the curiosity of naturalists, and it is to be regretted that we are not already in possession of a physical and detailed map of the whole Sarmatian plain.

Climate.

The humid climate of Lithuania is subject to oppressive heat and to extreme cold, which seldom continues any length of time. But two or three days of a Lithuanian winter proved fatal to the remains of the French army, that escaped the Russian sword, and fled from the ashes of Moscow. The country is still covered with immense forests, where bears, wolves, wild boars and beavers are found in thousands. The urus appears not only to have diminished in number, but to have degenerated in size and strength. The ordinary trees are the resinous pine, the common oak and the mountain ash. A great quantity of kali and potashes is every year exported from the province. Much honey is obtained, and the natives make it into *lipiez* or white hydromel, and *maliniez* or hydromel mixed with raspberries. The pastures are excellent, the cattle are bet-

Animals, Productions.

BOOK CXI.

ter than those in Russia, and the wool is of a finer quality. Although large districts are well adapted for the culture of corn, buck wheat appears to be the most common crop.

Such are the natural riches of the country, but the industry of the inhabitants does not correspond with the liberality of nature. The best lands are uncultivated, the finest hay is suffered to decay on the meadows, and from the negligence of the rural authorities, whole forests are sometimes destroyed by fire. The country is infested with Jews, hence the cause that the interest of money is seldom less than ten per cent., although every article of consumption may be obtained at a very moderate price. The same people monopolize all the commerce, the corn is bought by them before it is in ear; though assiduous and persevering, they are too numerous to amass wealth. The population in the government of Wilna amounts to 1,700,000 inhabitants, and no fewer than 100,000 are Israelites, all of whom are only amenable to their own *kahals* or tribunals.

The Niemen.

The *Niemen* or the largest river in the country is navigable, and its course is tranquil, but it discharges itself into the Curisch-Haff, a Prussian bay; thus commerce is shackled, and the articles exported from the province are subject to oppressive duties. The Wilia or the second river in the country falls into the Niemen.

Lithuanians.

There are still several wealthy families in the ancient Polish nobility, among others, the Radziwils, the Sapiehas and the Orgingski, but their splendid palaces are surrounded by wretched cottages. The Lithuanian peasantry differ little in their habits and manner of life from the Samogitians, and are probably the descendants of the same people; but the former have mingled more with the Slavonians proper. "The Lithuanians," says a physician, who visited the country, "resemble the Poles and Russians, although they are even less advanced in civilization than the inhabitants of these nations. Struggling against poverty, oppressed by slavery, their appearance indicates their degraded condition. The country is humid and marshy, but intermittent fevers are of rare occurrence, plica is not so

common as in the rest of Poland, and it appears from a number of observations, that nine persons out of ten among the lower orders are never inflicted with that loathsome disease. The proportion among the higher classes is as one to ninety or a hundred. Erysipelas, itch and scrofula are common diseases, vaccination has not yet been introduced."*

The Lithuanian peasants wear a woollen mantle, and many of them merely a sheep skin above a coarse shirt. Their shoes are made of the bark of trees, their carts of mountain ash, and the different pieces are joined together without any iron. The most flexible branches are plaited, and used instead of bridles and harness.†

Lithuanian language.

The poor and oppressed people still speak that ancient dialect, which, from its connexion with history, has given rise to much discussion.

The Lithuanian language is spoken in Wilna, Troki and Grodno in Samogitia, and in Eastern Prussia from Memel to Gumbinnen and Insterburg. We have given our opinion of it in a separate work,‡ but, from paying too much attention to the difference rather than the resemblance between it and the Slavonic and the Wend, we supposed it distinct from the one and the other. We committed also the same error as the learned Gerttera, who applied the name of *Sarmatian* to the language and the people that spoke it. Thunmann discovered many Slavonic, Finnic and Gothic words in the Lithuanian dialect; but that circumstance is not sufficient to account for the formation of a language, which in the indication of physical objects, is regular and complete, in the expression of sentiments, ingenious, and in its relation to a particular mythology, wholly original. We believe that it was the ancient language of the Venedæ or Wends, the *Galindi*, *Sudavi* and other tribes that were called Pruczi at a later period. It might perhaps have been a very ancient form of the Slavonic, which was afterwards connect-

* Lafontaine, Dissertations chirurgico-médicales relatives à la Pologne.

† Rzaczyski, p. 205. ‡ Tableau de la Pologne, 1807. Chap. xv.

ed with the Gothic. We may call it the Proto-Wend to distinguish it from the Wend, that was introduced in the tenth century by Slavonic tribes on the banks of the Oder and the Elbe. It retains probably the most ancient and melodious form of the Slavonic primitives, freed from the frequent consonants or harsh sounds in the Polish, and terminating in sonorous or liquid letters, like the Greek and the Latin. But, independently of these roots, there are many that may be considered Gothic or Scandinavian, at all events the resemblance between them is obvious, still the analogy may be attributed to the common origin of all the Indo-Germanic tongues.

It might be instructive, according to the one or the other hypothesis, to trace its connexion with different languages, particularly the Icelandic and the Meso-Gothic of Ulphilas.* The grammatical structure is not less re-

* The relation between the Slavonic and the Lithuanian, which is derived from the Proto-Wend, may be illustrated by some examples. *Brat*, a brother, (Polish) *brolis* (Lithuan.) *Brzezina*, a birch wood, *berzinas*, *Ziwot*, life, *givenimas*. *Kmiec*, a slave, *kiemionis*. *Krol*, a king, *karalus*. *Wladza*, power, waldia. *Skladny*, elegant, *suklotinis*. *Skromny*, modest, romus. Przeplynac, I swim across, perplaukiu. It is a laborious and difficult task to trace the resemblance between the Slavonic and Proto-Wend roots; but it is the means of obtaining new proofs of the connexion that subsists between many ancient languages. Thus *zemlia* and *ziemie* (land) have little analogy with *dschiumi* in Sanscrit, but they are almost identical with *ziame* in Lithuanian. The Sanscrit word, *pria*, beloved, resembles the Lithuanian *priatel*, and is widely different from the *frijun* of Ulphilas. *Tava* in Sanscrit, and *tawas* in Lithuanian are the same, *Apu*, water in Sanscrit, which is common to the Zend, Persian and *Kurd*, is expressed by *oupe* in Lithuanian. *Akschi*, the eye, is *aks* in Lithuanian. The relation of the same language to the Mesogothic and Icelandic-Scandinavian may be illustrated by the following examples. Saule, sun, *saul*, (Ulphilas) *sol* in Scandinavian. *Ougnis*, fire, *ovn*, a chimney or fireside. Baltas, white, Balder, the god of light. *Turnas*, a slave, terna, a Swedish word for a domestick. *Medis*, a tree in Lithuanian, *meithr* in Icelandic. I shall cite one out of many remarkable hellenisms, *Eymipesciomis*, I go on foot, is the same as Eimi pezos in Greek. Many words have no apparent analogy with those of the same signification in any other language, as *padgous*, heaven, arklis, a horse, &c. &c. Latinisms are common; thus *senas*, old age, *jungas*, a yoke, *giaras*, dear. It follows from these and other examples, that the Lithuanian language forms a very important link in the chain of the Indo-Gothic tongues.

markable than the elementary part of the Lithuanian language. It possesses the same articles and declensions as the Greek, some of the Slavonic conjugations, several peculiarities of the Russian pronoun, and the same facility as the Russian, in the formation of compound words, diminutives and *verba prægnantia.* Lastly, it unites the two qualities of harmony and flexibility, the one renders it well adapted for poetry, the other for different kinds of versification.

Towns.

Wilna, the capital of Lithuania, is built on the confluence of the Wilia and Wilienka. The town, if the two suburbs of *Antokolla* and *Rondaischa* be included, covers a great extent of ground. The population exceeds 40,000 inhabitants, of whom five thousand are Jews. A mosque, a synagogue, one Lutheran, three Russian, one Calvinistic and thirty-two Catholic churches are the different places of worship, and consequently three holy days are observed every week. All the sects live in peace with each other, indeed they are more intent about trading than spiritual concerns. We may also mention a theological seminary for the education of Greek priests, a school of navigation, which, in our opinion, is ill placed, an astronomical observatory, and lastly, an university, that may one day hold a high rank among the northern schools. It was founded by the bishop Valerian Protasowitz, and its privileges were confirmed by Stephen Bathori and pope Gregory XIII. It fell afterwards into decay, but it was rebuilt in 1781 by the patriotic Stanislaus Poniatowsky; since that time it has been called the *Schola princeps* of the great dutchy of Lithuania. The Emperor Alexander increased its funds, established several new professorships, and sent a great addition to the library. *Kowno*, a town of four thousand inhabitants, is situated at the junction of the Wilia and the Niemen; and Troki, which contains 3500, is built near a marsh that never freezes.* *Grodno* on the Niemen was peopled in 1790 by more than four thousand

* Rzaczinski and Starovolski, Polonia, p. 35.

BOOK CXI.

individuals, and nearly a fourth of them were Jews; but its palaces are now desert, its silk, velvet and cloth manufactories are ruined. The last Polish diet was held at Grodno, and Russian soldiers compelled the deputies to put their names to the treaty, by which the division of their country was sanctioned.* *Freidensberg* or the Mount of Peace is surrounded by a forest on the banks of the Wilia, at the distance of a mile and a half from Kowno. A convent on its summit is now the residence of twenty-four hermits, that belong to the order of Camaldolites. The edifice was erected in 1674 by Christopher Pacs, chancellor of Lithuania, who expended more than 800,000 crowns on the work. The vault and cupolas are painted in fresco, and the walls are adorned with many original paintings of the best masters. The Pacs† are descended from the Florentine Pazzi, who, having in vain contended against the Medici, left Tuscany, and settled in Poland, where they attained the highest dignities, and even attempted to dispute the sovereignty with the great Sobieski. The Italian style may be easily recognised in all the public buildings which were raised by these illustrious strangers.‡

Monastery.

Tartars.

The part of Lithuania that is now added to eastern Prussia, is inhabited by Tartars, who have their mosque at *Wiskupie.* The republick of Poland made over to them two *starosties,* each of which yielded a revenue of 10,000 florins. It was at the same time declared unlawful to restrain them in the free exercise of their religion.§

Lithuanian Russia.

Lithuanian Russia included part of the countries which the great dukes conquered from the Russians in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. The palatinates of *Polock, Witepsk, Mcislaw* and *Minsk,* made up *White Russia,*

* The treaty of 1793, by which the division of Poland is said to have been sanctioned.

† The name is pronounced as if it were written Patz.

‡ Tableau de la Pologne.

§ Cellarius, p. 280, Laws of the Diet of 1767.

and the palatinate of *Novogrodek* was denominated *Black Russia.* The origin of these names is uncertain, some authors assure us that the inhabitants of one province were clothed in white, while those of another confined themselves exclusively to dark attire. If their derivation be admitted, it follows that Black Russia must have comprehended the whole of Little and Red Russia, Volhynia and the Ukraine. It is well known, however, that the name was never applied to so great an extent of territory. Another hypothesis has been advanced, which we consider more probable, the words *white* and *black*, it is said, are used, as in the Tartar, Turkish and other languages, to denote *free* and *vassal.* Black Russia, therefore, was first conquered by the Lithuanians, and the White Russians retained their name after they were subdued. The other explanations which have been proposed, are connected with physical objects, as snow, forests and lakes.

Physical description.

The forests and marshes in these vast provinces are more extensive than any in Lithuania. Sigismond the First was obliged, during his expedition against Smolensko, to construct 340 bridges and dikes within the distance of twenty-four leagues.* The state of the country has not been much improved since his time. Modern travellers avoid the road through Polock, and the following account is given of the one from Smolensko to Minsk by a Frenchman, who travelled on it a few years ago. "The road," says that writer, "is often impassable, the villages are mean, and the peasants are poor. Most of the houses are inhabited by Jews, who are perhaps the most filthy people of any in Europe. Men, women, children, cattle and poultry are all lodged under the same roof. We have often been constrained to share the only apartment in the dwelling with that numerous and select society. Spirits may be had every where, wine is not uncommon, and not very dear, but provisions can only be obtained in the towns, which are thinly scat-

* Rzackinski, Hist. Nat. p. 159.

BOOK CXI.

tered, indeed most of them might pass in other countries for wretched villages."*

The cultivated land in White Russia produces secale, barley, oats, wheat, turnips and leguminous plants. Naval timber abounds in the forests, and the animals that frequent them, are bears, elks and wolves. The stagnant and running waters teem with fish, and the bees, notwithstanding the severity of the climate, yield plenty of wax and honey.

Agriculture.

Some peculiarities in the system of agriculture may be briefly stated. Wheat is generally sown in ashes. The peasants begin to cut the brushwood about the festival of St. Peter and St. Paul, the branches are strewed on the ground, and sometimes covered with straw. The soil remains nearly a year in the same state, and the heap is burnt in the following spring, commonly on the first warm and dry day after Easter. Care is taken that the fire does not penetrate into the earth, and the wheat is put into the ground after the surface is grazed with the light plough. A good soil is chosen for the purpose, and it is rendered extremely fertile by this sort of compost.† If barley be the intended crop, all the branches in a thick copse are cut, but the trunks are not wholly destroyed. The wood which is thus obtained, is afterwards burnt in the same manner. We are thus enabled to account for the great number of half-consumed pollards, that excited the surprise of an English traveller.‡ Late rye is the next crop after the wheat or barley. The ground is twice laboured, and, according to an old adage, the work must be commenced after the festival of the Assumption, (the fifteenth of August) and finished before the birthday of the Virgin, the eighth of September. If this rule be not strictly observed, the seed, it is supposed, is sown in vain. It is said, however, that some husbandmen more bold than the rest, have introduced a different practice. Two parts of barley and one of winter secale are

* Fortia de Piles, t. V. † Alex. Guagnini, Elzevir's Polonia.

‡ Coxe's Travels in Poland, vol. I. p. 103.

sown during the spring in the same field. The barley is reaped in autumn, and the secale, which grows under its shade, is next year loaded with spikes, and appears like a luxuriant plantation, in which a man on horseback may be effectually concealed.*

Summer secale is sown after Easter, barley and oats at Pentecost, peas before St. Peter's day, and turnips about the festival of St. John. The seed time is earlier in Black than in White Russia.

Condition of the people.

The people are ignorant and poor. A stranger saw many White Russian peasants arrive at Riga about six years ago. Their clothing was sheep skins, and although they conducted boats laden with corn, they suffered much from famine. The poor slaves slept on the ground or in hovels constructed with the remains of old planks, having sold their cargo and their boats, they returned in the same state that they came, and restored to their lords or their lords' stewards the whole price of the goods, which is always paid in ready money.†

Towns in White Russia.

The towns in the government are not numerous. *Mohilew*, the metropolis of a Russian government, is the only large one, it contains 16,000 inhabitants; its situation on the Dnieper is favourable to trade, and it shares with Vitepsk the commerce of White Russia. The one carries on a trade with Riga, the other with Cherson and Odessa. The communications have been rendered easy by the canal of the Beresina, which unites the river of the same name (a feeder of the Dnieper) with the Duna, and consequently the Baltic with the Black Sea. *Mstislawl*, a town of five thousand souls, and *Dubrowna*, which contains 8000, are situated in the same government.

Moldavian colony.

A colony of Moldavians and Wallachians, who migrated to these regions for some cause that is now unknown, are settled at Uschatky near the town of Tcherikow,‡ and also in the neighbourhood of

* Guagnini, Elzevir's Polonia, p. 286.

† *Zuge zu einem gemæhlde.* Second part, p. 118.

‡ Campenhausen's Travels in Russia.

BOOK CXI.

Mstislawl and Propoisk. They speak a Wallachian dialect mixed with Slavonic and Lithuanian words.

Towns in Black Russia.

The town of Minsk, although the capital of a government, contains only 3000 inhabitants. We may mention the small village of *Studianka*, which is famous from the passage of the Beresina, where a few French soldiers made for themselves a road through the Russian army.

Slonim, one of the largest towns in Black Russia, is peopled by five thousand individuals. It is situated in Grodno, and was at one time the metropolis of that government. *Sluck* was once the capital of a dutchy about a hundred and twenty-five miles in length; the dukes, though nominally tributary, were in reality independent, but their possessions were ceded to the family of Radziwill. The celebrated Nicholas Christopher Radziwill, to whom we are indebted for a book of travels, built a large castle, with fortifications, that have been since destroyed by the Swedes and Russians.

Polesia.

The ancient province of Polesia extends on the south of Black Russia, and the soil is in a great measure concealed under the shade of thick forests, or covered by the water of lakes, rivers and marshes. The country is almost inaccessible the greater part of the year. The fens with which it is inundated, resemble a sea, and it received probably on that account the name of Polesia. Fish, honey, timber and iron are among the most common productions of the province. If a canal of no great length were cut from the *Muchawiec*,* a feeder of the Bug, to the *Pina* that falls into the Pripetz; boats might sail from the Vistula to the Dnieper, and a new communication, a most important outlet for the commerce of the country, might be formed between the Baltic and the Black Sea. But Count Oginski united formerly the two seas by a canal that joined the *Szczara* (Chtchara) to the Pripetz. The first of these rivers flows into the Niemen, and the second into the Dnieper. The large marshes

Oginski canal.

* Mughavietz.

in the district of Pinsk were partly drained by the canal, which commenced at eight Polish miles from Slonim on the Szczara, crossed the lake *Sviznica*, and terminated at the *Iasiolda*, that enters the Pripetz at seven miles from the town of Pinsk.* Thus the distance was not greater than eight miles, and the country on both sides belonged to the count. The author of that great undertaking had the satisfaction of seeing in 1787, a boat laden with a hundred tons of salt, sailing between Cherson and Koenigsberg.† The canal is now obstructed with sand, and though no longer used for commercial purposes, it still serves to drain the marshes.

Towns in Polesia.

Brzesk, which is surnamed *Litewska* or Lithuanian, to distinguish it from a Polish town of the same name, is not so much known from its fortified castle on the Bug, as from its *Jewish academy*, which is frequented by Israelites from every country in Europe. *Pinsk*, the largest town in Polesia, is surrounded by marshes, and its population does not exceed 4000 inhabitants. The Jews have a synagogue, and the trade of the place consists in Russian leather, which is said to be the best of any in Poland. The ancient Jesuits built a college, and founded a dispensary in this desert region. The last institution has survived its founders, while those who were ensnared into popery, are returning in thousands to the Eastern church.

Province of Bialystock.

The province of Bialystock, or the western limit of the vast empire of the czar, corresponds partly with the ancient Podlachia. It was peopled in the middle ages by the *Iatwinges*, a people, that are considered, perhaps incorrectly, a branch of the Jaziges. The town of Bialystock, the most modern of any between Warsaw and Petersburg, contains a population of 6000 souls, it is adorned with a fine castle and several public buildings.

* A Polish mile is equal to two English miles and a half.

† Sirisa, a Polish author. See *Nord Littéraire*, &c. &c. deuxieme cahier, p. 154.

BOOK CXII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Russia concluded. Origin, rise and resources of the Russian empire.

BOOK CXII.

A philosopher contemplates without prejudice the rise and fall of nations. But it is difficult to divest oneself of the political fears and jealousies that agitate the people and the ministers of kings, or to view with indifference the colossal power of Russia. The impatience of cotemporaries is natural, we are too anxious to discover or imagine causes that may tend to accelerate the dissolution of an empire, which threatens the destruction of Europe. Thus, the distant future is often confounded with the chances of the morrow. A revolution takes place in the palace, a civil war follows, and the frail tenure by which Russia holds all her immense provinces is instantly perceived. Let not wise governments be too secure, or overrate the chances of such events. Who knows that the fall of so great an empire may not be followed by calamities more disastrous than those which accompanied its rise, or that the civil convulsions of such a state are not more dangerous than its repose? Russia has probably new dominions to acquire before it reaches the fatal term of human greatness, and when that term arrives, the rest of Europe may share its fate.

How have the czars united under their sceptre one half of Europe, and a third part of Asia? What was the origin of their power, by what means was it acquired?

Origin of the Slavo-Russians.

The rise of Russia, whatever be the common opinion on the subject, was not sudden, modern or of an ephemeral character. It was the work of ages and of nature. The seeds of its greatness were sown in the darkness that envelopes the origin of the Slavonic race, in the age that the Slavonians increased on the Carpathian mountains, and the savage Greeks assembled round the lyre of Orpheus. That numerous people bred in the forests of Sarmatia, were almost unknown to the Greeks and Romans, and appeared at last in southern Europe under the command of the Goths, their masters, and under the standards of the Huns, their conquerors. Many migrated into different countries long before they were mentioned in history. Freed at last from the double yoke of the Goths and Huns, the Slavonians or Slovenes were afterwards called by their own name. They formed a mass of homogeneous tribes from the Elbe to the Borysthenes, some of which increased in their native land, and others were subdued by the Germanic race. But the most eastern branch, that of the Antes or Russians, extended towards the east, and was strengthened by the descendants of the ancient *Roxolani*. It invaded the uncultivated forests inhabited by the Finns and other people of Scythian origin, founded Kiow, Novgorod, Susdal, Wladimir and Moscow, and peopled and cultivated all the fertile plains as far as the Don and the Wolga. They did not enter of their own accord on the career of conquest, and it was the bold and restless genius of the Wareguean Scandinavians, that revealed to the Slavo-Russians the greatness of their future destiny.

Wareguean.

Scandinavia was agitated for many ages by civil discord, but colonists migrated from it almost without interruption, and these men were not so formidable from their numbers as from their courage and warlike habits. They were bold adventurers, who, banished for the crimes or excesses which they committed, sought an asylum or rather a new theatre for their exploits, in the uncultivated countries in

BOOK CXII.

the north and east of Russia. They were soon united under chiefs well qualified to command such bands. Their captains were princes, the sons of the sovereigns, who ruled over the petty kingdoms into which Scandinavia was then divided. A family quarrel, an amorous adventure, an unfortunate duel forced them to quit their country and remain in exile. Such leaders and such soldiers were not intimidated by any obstacle, and indeed they never met with any among the Slavonic tribes, which, although numerous, were neither organized nor concentrated, but dispersed over an immense extent of territory. The *Waregueans* or warriors founded without difficulty their military capitals at Old Holmgard, (probably Kolmogori on the Dwina) at New Holmgard or Novgorod, at Aldeiguburg on the Ladoga, Izborsk, Pleskow and many other places.* The eastern Slavi and more particularly the Russians were thus commanded by warlike chiefs, and they began from that time to know and to regulate their force. Covered with breast-plates, and armed with sharp swords, they easily routed the Slavonians in the interior, who were then defended by wooden bucklers. They undertook different expeditions in their fleets or numerous boats, (a characteristic trait of a Scandinavian people,) and attacked Constantinople and Kiow. Their armies were subdued or weakened on the Bosphorus, but other warriors opened new communications on the Wolga and its large tributary rivers. The Finnic and Hunnic tribes in these countries submitted to the Waregueans, who became Russians in the same way as the Norman Scandinavians became Norman French. Thus, long before the invasion of the Mongol Tartars, a number of powerful kingdoms, independently of the republicks of Novgorod and Pleskow, had been founded in central Russia, under the modest title of great dutchies and principalities. The invasion of the Asiatic hordes had all the character of a military occupation. It produced no national change, it effaced merely the traces of the Scandinavian democracy, and gave rise to despotic dynasties.

Settlements of the Waregueans.

Extension of the Russian name.

* See the article Scandinavia.

When Russia had shaken off the Tartar yoke, its own resources became apparent, and it has ever been the real Russian people, scattered from Lemberg, Halicz and Kiovia to Wologda and Woronesch, that formed the nucleus of its power. The rapid aggrandizement of the empire under the two Iwans, is not to be attributed to new conquests, but rather to reprisals gained from the Tartars, which were effected without difficulty, for it is an identity of language, customs and institutions, not the soil or the name of the master, that constitutes a nation or a country. The last reprisals were wrested in our own age from the Poles. The Ukraine, Podolia and Volhynia were in ancient times a part of Russia, and the Austrians are well aware that eastern Gallicia is only another name for Red Russia. It was by reprisals that the population of the empire was increased, and additional territory was all that it gained by its conquests.

Nucleus of the Russian nation.

The distinction between the nation itself and the countries conquered at different times by different sovereigns, ought to form the basis of every political reasoning on the subject of Russia.

We observe in the first or in the nation, a unity and concentration surpassing far that in Germany and France, a population sufficiently compact for the nature of the country, and an industry wholly national, though not in an advanced state.

The geographical, military and commercial relations of the empire correspond with its foreign conquests, which are thus dependent on the central provinces.

Successive additions.

We shall endeavour to estimate the successive additions made by the czars.

Epochs.	German square miles.*	Approximate population.
Under Iwan the First in 1452, .	18,494	6,000,000
At his death, in 1505, . . .	37,137	10,000,000
(Junction of Novgorod, Permia, Tchernigov, Severia, &c.)		

* A German mile is equal to $3 + \frac{1}{3}$ English miles, consequently one German square mile is equal to $11 + \frac{1}{9}$ English miles. The above table may therefore be converted into English square miles by multiplying the different numbers by $11 + \frac{1}{9}$.

BOOK CXII.

Epochs.	German square miles.	Approximate population.
At the death of Iwan II. in 1584, . (Conquest of Kasan, Astracan, Siberia.)	125,465	12,000,000
At the death of Michael the First in 1645, (Conquests in Siberia, territory ceded to Poland.)	254,361	12,000,000
At the accession of Peter the First in 1689, ... (Kiovia retaken, &c.)	263,900	15,000,000
At the death of Peter I. in 1725, . (Conquests on the Baltic, in Persia, &c.)	273,815	20,000,000
At the accession of Catherine the Second in 1763, ... (Conquests in Asia.)	319,538	25,000,000
At her death in 1796, . . (Countries conquered from the Turks, reprisals and conquests in Poland.)	331,810	36,000,000
At the death of Alexander in 1825, . (Conquests in Poland, Finland, Moldavia and Persia.)	367,494	58,000,000

Inland resources.

The principal elements of the power of inland Russia were united under the two Iwans and Alexis Michaelowitz. The empire extended in 1588 from Smolensko to the lake Baikal, and comprehended within its vast limits, fertile countries, populous towns, inexhaustible mines, a numerous, frugal and hardy people, attached to their god and their czar. The name of "the great lord, the czar and autocrat of Russia," was seldom repeated by diplomatists, it held no conspicuous place in court manifestoes. The eastern religion and a national language written in Greek characters were the means of isolating the Russians from the Latin and German nations. Another cause tended to produce the same effect, the czars, with very few exceptions, chose formerly their wives from their own subjects, a custom which was common in the eleventh century. Lastly, the Muscovites, from their Asiatic manners, were compared or confounded with the Turks and Tartars. It must not however be inferred that well-informed statesmen were ignorant of the real power of the

Russian empire. Michalon, a Lithuanian noble, wrote the following memorable words to Sigismond the Second, about the year 1550. BOOK CXII.

"The Muscovites and Tartars surpass us in bravery, temperance, frugality, and all the virtues connected with the stability of empires. The Muscovites laugh at our effeminacy, and give us their furs in exchange for our gold. We know more about luxury and refinement, but the Iwans and the Basils have taken our fortresses, one after another. These princes did not establish their power by gold, but by iron, by introducing the rigid discipline and the strict order that prevail among the Tartars. The laws are dispensed with gravity, and not, as in Poland, during a feast or debauch. The nobles are not permitted to mutilate or kill their slaves. No man can be condemned without the public sentence of a judge. While the Polish soldiers are fighting in the taverns, the Muscovites remain under arms, and guard the frontiers." Muscovites of the sixteenth century.

The ambassadors of different courts, and among others the learned Herberstein, were well aware of the increasing importance of Russia. The English having opened a communication with Archangel, foresaw the advantage of establishing commercial relations with that immense country, from which the Hanseatic merchants had derived so much wealth by the route of the Baltic. Denmark, instigated by the counsels of Poland, excited the czar against Sweden, and some very curious documents connected with these calamitous negotiations, are still extant. The French, Italian and Spanish diplomatists were less connected with Russia, and had not so much cause of alarm at its growing power. But the unknown giant waxed strong, and issued at last from his native forests. Peter the First organized, after the European manner, the forces that his ancestors had left him, and the victory of Poltawa, by which the judicious plans of Charles the Twelfth were frustrated, established in Europe the reputation of the Russian arms. But of all the conquests made by Peter the Great, one small spot only served to increase the resources of his em- Efforts of Peter the First.

pire. Foreign capital was diffused into the country from the maritime commerce of Petersburg, and it was employed in improving land, clearing forests and working mines. The political ramifications of the empire were afterwards extended by the matrimonial connexions between the Russian dynasty and the reigning families in Germany. The inhabitants of Petersburg adopted the manners, nay even the costume of other countries; superficial observers were dazzled by their vain imitations, but little improvement was made in the arts, because they were founded on the precarious basis of prohibitions and bounties, still they may perhaps have shed a lustre over the capital, the only place visited by travellers.

Revolutions under his successors.

Although Peter the First had the merit of establishing an European system in Russia, the influence or importance of the empire was not sufficient to place it on a level with the other great states before the time of Catherine the Second. Philosophic observers discovered the weakness of the government; the frequent revolutions that happened in the court, threatened the destruction of the monarchy, and betrayed the secret of the supposed reform in the national character, so gratuitously attributed to Peter the Great. The murder of Alexis in 1718, the sanguinary executions of 1724, (the greater number of which are not mentioned by Voltaire,) the massacre of a whole family* in 1730, the twenty thousand exiles during the administration of Biren, under the reign of Ann, the assassination of Sinclair, a Swedish courier, in 1739, the many victims mutilated or maimed, and the violent deaths of Peter the Third in 1763, and of Prince Iwan in 1764, exhibit a picture of anarchy to which no parallel can be found in the eighteenth century. Politicians, jealous of Russia, then observed the signs of its approaching dissolution. The empire was said to be in a state of decay before it had arrived at maturity. Agreeable delusion! consolatory prophecy for short-sighted statesmen! The dynasty was never secure, the nation remained in its primitive force.

* The Dolgorouki.

Insurrections of the nobles.

The uncertainty of the succession, occasioned by the culpable negligence of Peter the First, was the chief cause of all the revolutions in the palace. The Russians censured justly the arbitrary enactments of their sovereign, his successors were thus entitled to leave the crown to a foreigner, a privilege in direct opposition to the ancient laws of the nation, which, conformably to the experience of every age, established but did not regulate in express terms the principle of hereditary succession.* The empire was rendered more unstable by two other causes, that have escaped the notice of historians and political writers. Every ukase, before the year 1701, commenced with a formula, that acknowledged the rights of the boyars. *Weliki gospodar ukazal, y boyari prigoworelli*, the great lord has ordained, and the boyars have consented. The nobles were never unmindful of their ancient privileges, and they forced the empress Ann to submit to terms by which the government was changed in 1730, into a limited monarchy. It was not one individual who aspired to the throne, or thought that he had the best right to it, for the reigning family was an indirect branch of the house of Romanow, which was only connected by females with the house of Rourik. The Dolgorouki attempted to accomplish their ambitious projects in 1729; they as well as the Repnini were sprung from princes, and the ancestors of the Gallitzins, the Kurakins and other families were the great dukes of Lithuania.†

Exposed to a change of masters, to an insurrection of the nobles, and a war in the interior, Russia was less powerful after the time of Peter the First, than it had been under the reign of Iwan the Second. Had a great prince then filled the throne of Sweden, Poland or Turkey, the equilibrium might have been restored in northern and eastern Europe.

* Schlœzer's Historical Researches on the fundamental laws of the Russian nation, p. 21. German edition.

† Haven's Narrative, vol. I. chap. xiii. (Danish.)

BOOK CXII.

Military glory.

The military glory acquired by Marshal Munich did not long redound on the Russian arms, and the seven years' war was a proof that the immense multitudes which Russia could bring into the field, although brave, were destitute of moral force, and not formidable under the command of native generals.* The navy was chiefly composed of foreign officers, particularly English and Danes, but these admirals were ill provided with ships and seamen. The Finlanders were not then subdued, the forests in the Polish Ukraine did not then belong to Russia, and it was discovered in the reign of Elizabeth, that the oaks in Kasan were not durable, and ill adapted for ship-building.

Political intrigues.

The influence of Russia, before the long and brilliant reign of Catherine the Second, was confined to political intrigues in Poland and Sweden, intrigues, by which these old bulwarks of Europe were slowly undermined. A solitary exception may be mentioned, it was the interference of Russia in the war of the Austrian succession, an event that proved not the power and credit of the court of Petersburg, but rather the weakness and decrepitude of the court at Versailles. It was not a Russian army of 36,000 men, that forwarded the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle. M. Bestuchef brought matters to a conclusion by threatening to bring forward a second army, although he was well aware that the second army was neither complete nor in a state to march. That example of the good effect which a mere shadow of power may produce, has been since too often imitated by the Russian and many other cabinets.

Accessions made by Catherine.

It was during the war against the Turks in 1770, and the division of Poland in 1773, that Russia first acted the part of a great nation. Important conquests were gained, but the designs of Catherine might have been foreseen by the other European powers. It was in the same reign that the fleet formed by Peter the First, and wholly neglected by his successors, sailed round Europe, ruled in the Archipelago, and threatened the subjugation

* Marshal Munich was, by birth, a Danish subject.

of Egypt. Native Russians, such men as Romanzow, Panin and Souwarrow then first acquired military glory, and although Souwarrow is the only one of these generals, who was not indebted for all his victories to his aid-de-camps, Russia was ranked among the great military nations. Catherine knew much better than Peter the First, how to purchase partisans, and their panegyricks shed a lustre on her success; she knew well what advantages might be derived from the delusions of a brilliant court, where luxury and gallantry reigned. All the women and men of letters became her friends, their vanity and effeminacy, the prevailing vices of civilized nations in the eighteenth century, were flattered. The empress made a more profitable appeal to the avidity of princes, an avidity, that was all powerful in the European cabinets, at the time that shallow politicians calculated the strength of states by the number of their inhabitants. The division of Poland was the masterpiece of her policy. It was not merely the provinces added to the empire; as soon as the law of nations was abolished, each great power might adopt with impunity, and on the most frivolous pretences, the system of usurpation and invasion. Thus, Russia has never concluded a treaty since that epoch without acquiring additional territory, sometimes, as in the case of Tilsit, at the expense of her own allies, nor has the same state ever made the least sacrifice for the general interests of Europe,—prudently abandoning the maritime rights, which at its instigation, Denmark defended with a heroism worthy of better success.

Division of Poland.

Russia acquired the ports on the Black Sea, and the forests in the Ukraine; but we admire the plausible pretexts that were employed to obtain them. The empress said to the *dissidents* in Poland; "we come to protect you;" the Poles believed her. She said to Austria—We have given you Gallicia, an equivalent for the loss of Silesia; the Austrians became her allies. The *old lion at Potsdam,* not then in his dotage, was deceived by the mean lure of an additional province. Literary, philo-

Policy of Catherine.

BOOK CXII.

sophical and religious associations were enlisted in the war against Turkey, and although that state is so essential to the equilibrium of Europe, philanthropy became subservient to the ambition of Catherine. New geographical arrangements were substituted for the ancient law of nations, the political dissolution of Europe necessarily followed, the enemies and rivals of Russia expected to share the spoils, and the empress made them her accomplices.

Alexander.

Alexander adopted in the early part of his reign, a better and a wiser system, he desired not to add to the immense extent of Russia, but, conformably to the wishes of the wisest patriots, to direct the energy of his people in improving the resources of their country, the different kinds of culture, and the many valuable productions. He was anxious to derive some advantage from the vast conquests of his predecessors, to connect them with the ancient provinces, to attach the inhabitants to their common country, and to form a national character out of so many conflicting interests. If these noble intentions were soon given up, the cause is too well known; it was the alarm excited by revolutionary and imperial France, that invaded in the short space of ten years, more countries than Russia had done in ten centuries. Impelled at last into the same career, Alexander made two conquests, most important to Russia, most dangerous to Europe. The coasts of Finland have supplied the navy with good seamen, and Poland has been changed into an army of observation in the centre of Europe. There is no end to conquests, one province demands another, Sweden, Norway, Copenhagen and Hamburgh may be necessary to complete the naval stations on the Baltic, the Hungarian mountains and the Silesian fortresses may form the military frontier of Poland. Such limits may seem *natural* to another Iwan, and wherefore may not one appear on the throne of the czars? What power can now resist an empire, that extends its sway over a twenty-eighth part of the terrestrial surface, and includes among its subjects a fifteenth part of the human race?

Accessions made by Alexander.

Natural limits of Russia.

It has been shown that the mean term of the population is confined to the central zone, and that it augments rapidly towards the east and the south. The people in the conquered provinces are rather decreasing than increasing, therefore the real Russians make up the annual addition in the number of inhabitants, an addition, according to the lowest estimate, not less than half a million. The proportion of one in every hundred, is not great in a country like Russia, where the rich but uncultivated lands are extensive, where forests, fishing and the chase, as well as the ordinary arts and trades, afford the sure and easy means of subsistence. It appears, however, from the most correct statistical researches, that different local accessions must be partly attributed to frequent migrations from one government to another. Russia contains at least 150,000 square leagues of territory,* that might be rendered as productive as Germany, and might maintain about one hundred and fifty millions of inhabitants. Can the czars wish to conquer, when they see the germs of powerful empires within their dominions?

Annual increase in the population.

The great extent of country renders it difficult to estimate all the products of labour. Statistical tables, even on the supposition that they are kept with the utmost care, can only exhibit approximate results. General conclusions relative to such a mass of provinces must be necessarily incorrect; to obtain any thing like accuracy, the objects compared must be reduced to a very small number, or confined within narrow limits. The rearing of cattle, by which term we include every variety from the camel of the southern steppes to the rein deer of the arctic zone, forms still a great source of wealth. All the wandering tribes, and those connected with them, pay great attention to their horses, and the same care is generally bestowed on their oxen; but the Russian gives himself little concern about these useful animals. The rich and abundant pastures in the Ukraine, enable the inhabitants to export their large oxen and swift

Progress of industry.

Rearing of cattle.

* Seven hundred and fifty thousand English square miles.

horses; but it is only on the estates of a few nobles, that any progress has been made in that department of agriculture. The same remark is applicable to the rearing of sheep, for the improvement which we have observed in some provinces, is also the effect of individual and local efforts. It is certain, on the other hand, that the quantity of butcher meat, ordinary wool and leather of every sort, exceeds greatly what is consumed in the empire. The preparation of *iouftes* or Russian leather, is an art confined to Russia, and the demand for fine wool in the different manufactories is not increasing. The agriculture of so vast a country is subject, independently of the changes produced by labour, to the variations consequent on climate.

Agriculture, produce, &c.

New lands are laboured, cultivation extends in every direction, and its progress is only obstructed by the difficulty of obtaining outlets, a difficulty that is most severely felt in the most fruitful provinces. It appears from the official tables, which have been only published for the years 1802, 1803 and 1804, that the annual excess of grain, (chiefly wheat and rye,) varies in the whole empire, from forty-three to sixty-four millions of tshetverts, or from eighty-four to a hundred and twenty millions of bushels.* That quantity is made up of the addition of the surplus produce in different provinces, and does not determine the total exportation, of which the value was calculated in 1805 at forty-five millions of roubles. According to the same official tables, the excess of consumption is always greatest in the governments of Petersburg, Moscow, Archangel, Wologda and Permia. There is in ordinary years, an excess of production in the Siberian governments, and in the provinces of Orenburg and Astrakhan. The extreme abundance commences at Kasan and Nischnei-Novgorod, extends across Penza, Tambof, Orel and Kursk to Katerinoslaw, is diffused throughout Little Russia and the Polish Ukraine, becomes less general in Lithuania, and disappears gradually on the shores of the

* Each of these bushels is equal to 2 3-4 imperial bushels.

Baltic. May not that natural fertility have been observed by some tribes from the remotest antiquity?

It was from these countries that the Slavonic and Finnic hordes, conducted by Gothic kings, marched against the Roman empire; but the sterile Carpathian heights and the arid Scythian steppe formed an impassable barrier to ancient geographers.

Mines.

The mines, particularly those on the Ural mountains, were worked at a very ancient period, but it is only in modern times that the Russians have applied themselves to that branch of industry. Gold, silver and copper are more abundant in the Asiatic governments, or along the last declivities of what is still called the great central ridge. The Russian Peru extends from Perm to the country beyond Irkutsk, and government, far from following the singular opinion of a French traveller, who advised the Russians to retire to this side of the Jenessei, may allege specious reasons for including within the limits of the empire all the Belour and the Great Altai. Iron, the most useful of the metals, is more common, or at least it is more generally worked on the European side from Perm to Orenburg and Wiatka, and from Nischgorod to Tula and Tambof. The cause must be attributed to the demand for the article in the most populous governments, and to the proximity of different outlets. The total produce of the copper mines is greater than 200,000 pouds,* and that of the iron mines is about six millions.† Russia possesses another treasure in the numerous salt lakes and marshes in the Siberian steppes, and in the country to the north of the Caspian Sea. The salt obtained throughout the empire, about twenty years ago, was not less than twenty-six millions of pouds, and it has since increased indefinitely with the population.

Fisheries, chase, &c.

The produce of the fisheries and the chase is very valuable; furs and other articles are sold for three millions of

* Eight millions of pounds. † Two hundred and forty millions of pounds.

BOOK CXII.

roubles,* the value of the different fish amounts to fifteen millions, and the half of that sum is obtained from the stations on the Wolga and the Caspian Sea. Although several provinces are ill supplied with wood, the forests are in general inexhaustible. It appears from a calculation made by M. Hermann in 1804, that there were in thirty-one governments, 8,195,295 firs well adapted for masts, and at least thirty-six inches in diameter, a number much more than sufficient for all the fleets in the world, but in addition to it there were 86,869,243 that might have been used in building houses. The same writer supposed the number of oaks in twenty-two governments to be 374,804, and each of them was more than twenty-six inches in diameter, those of a less dimension exceeded 229,570,427. The exportation of lint and flax, two very useful plants, amounted in 1802 to twenty millions of roubles.

Manufactures.

The wealth derived from the different manufactures may be taken into consideration along with the natural riches of the empire. We have already adverted to the domestic industry of the Russian peasant, and his aptitude for imitation. Government has encouraged the application of that talent by abolishing monopolies, and rendering the arts and trades as free in the country as in the towns. Increased industry and activity have been the results of these wise regulations, but the people are too eager to secure prompt returns for their labour, consequently, few manufactures are carried to any degree of perfection, and the different goods are much inferior to others of the same sort in foreign countries. Every kind of leather, particularly Russian leather, jewellery, cordage, sail-cloth, soap, tallow and oil form exceptions to the above rule. Although the Russians have not made the same improvement in other articles, a great quantity of their own manufactures, imperfect as they are, is consumed, and the importation of foreign goods is proportionally diminished.

Spirits.

The distillation of spirits from grain is a very

* The value of the rouble is subject to great fluctuation, it has varied from three shillings and two pence to nine pence.

important and indeed a very useful article in the Russian trade, for it is obtained from native produce, it supersedes the necessity of foreign spirits, it is sold at a cheap rate, and many millions of peasants and workmen require it in so cold a climate. It might be very difficult to calculate the quantity consumed every year, but it is certain that the revenue farmers pay annually to the crown sixteen millions of roubles for their right to the duty. *Braga* is the best beer in Russia, and its name is a sufficient proof that the art of making it was known to the Scandinavians, some other kinds are nearly as good, and the great consumption thus occasioned, tends to diminish the use of foreign wines, which are still imported to the amount of four millions of roubles. Little attention is bestowed on the simple art of making arms and different iron utensils. Although that art has been long known in Tula, the demand is not supplied from all the works, a million of scythes and other articles are annually imported, these are of a much better kind than the others made in the country, the Russian tradesmen are satisfied if they can sell their goods, they are indifferent about their quality. The linen is not very fine, but the quantity imported is inconsiderable. The necessity of foreign cloth is not superseded by the coarse woollen stuffs manufactured by the peasants, the same may be said of the cotton goods, but the importation of silk is much diminished, the raw material or the produce of the southern governments has greatly increased of late years, and if the province of Georgia were well cultivated, it might supply sufficient silk, not to mention fruits and wine, for the whole of Russia. It may be better, instead of enumerating minutely different objects liable to daily variation, to state that the extraordinary efforts of government to extend and improve the manufactures, have been accompanied with greater success than foreigners would wish. That country appears indeed to be barbarous and wretched, where the roads are paved with the trunks of trees, where wood smeared in pitch is a substitute for candles, where the labourers are not provided with good saws or scythes, where

BOOK CXII.

extensive granite quarries are neglected, and houses constructed of coarse planks. But if these defects be more closely examined, it may be discovered that they are partly occasioned by the great abundance of raw material, and also by the long continuance of established custom. The peasant is content with his wooden or clay cottage, he experiences no inconvenience from the use of his iron instruments. Thus, although there are many voids in civilization, government advances steadily towards that remote object, which it has proposed, namely, to have no real want that may not be supplied by its own resources. The means employed at present to ensure that great end, are the abolition of monopolies, with the exception of those on salt and spirits, the freedom of industry, which is slightly modified by distinctions that government has introduced between merchants, manufacturers and tradesmen, and lastly, a very minute but complicated system of customs and prohibitions.

Revenue.

The revenues of the crown are estimated at a hundred and ten millions of roubles, or, according to others, at a hundred and thirty millions of florins, (L.13,746,780,) but strangers have not the means of ascertaining the exact amount. It is from the revenue that the multiplied and varied expenses of government are defrayed; the salaries attached to the different offices are not great, and the sum might be more than sufficient for the purpose, were it not for the waste and abuses inseparable from the administration of so vast a country.

The revenue is obtained from the following sources; first, the *capitation,* to which the burgesses and all the peasants are subject; second, the tax on the capital of merchants, an individual declares the state of his capital in trade, without constraint and without a judicial examination, but his privileges, commercial immunities and personal consideration depend on the sum specified in his declaration; third, the royal *domains,* a very important branch of the revenue, it comprises the *obrok* or the tax paid by the peasants of the crown, the rents of the lands set in lease, and the produce of the government manufactories;

fourth, *the duties levied at the maritime and inland custom-houses*, the amount of the former is supposed to be equal to fourteen millions of roubles, that of the latter is not so great; fifth, the tax on the sale of heritable property, which is fixed at five per cent., and levied on houses, lands and peasants or vassals; sixth, *the monopoly on spirituous liquors*, from which, as has been already observed, the government derives a revenue of 16,000,000 roubles; seventh, *the monopoly on salt*, the price fixed by the crown is thirty-five *kopeks* for the poud,* the profit derived is inconsiderable, but the people are enabled to purchase an article of primary necessity at a cheap rate; eighth, *the regular duty on the produce of the mines*, from which, according to M. Hupel, government obtains annually 1,800,000 roubles; ninth, the stamps and post office; lastly, the *iassak* or furs exacted from the wandering tribes.

Expenditure.

The expenditure cannot be more correctly estimated than the revenue; the one, however, appears to balance the other in time of peace; but it is certain that government could not carry on a long war without loans or extraordinary sacrifices. The minister of finance acknowledges a national debt of L.25,200,000; a sinking fund has been formed for its extinction, and it co-operates as effectually as in the best governed states.

Land forces.

The number of troops, including the Polish army of 50,000, are one million, but not more than 700,000 are regular soldiers, and of these 48,000 are chosen men, who form the guard of the czar. If the extent of the frontiers on the side of Europe, the distances, the points that may be attacked, and the population of the empire be taken into consideration, it might appear that the military establishment is not proportionably so great as in other continental monarchies. The project of changing gradually the population on the royal domains into a permanent militia, after the manner of the Cossacks, and under

Military colonies.

* The kopek is nearly equivalent to a halfpenny.

BOOK CXII.

the name of *military colonies*, might give Russia the command of an almost unbounded force. Russian statesmen are doubtful if the obstacles against the execution of such a plan could be removed. The revenue might be inadequate for the necessary expense; besides, the serfs are not like the Cossacks, and their habits are widely different from those of warlike tribes.

Navy.

The navy, although well organized, is much less important than the army; it is on a smaller scale, and consists only of 32 vessels, and from two to three hundred sloops of war. The coasts of Finland and Esthonia, the nursery of the Russian navy, are peopled by good mariners, who are accustomed to petty warfare, they may command the Black Sea and the Baltic, but they are unused to the navigation of the ocean, and the Russian fleets cannot contend with others of maritime nations.

Form of government.

Such are the actual resources of the Russian empire; it is governed according to the will of a single individual, and his will is by law unlimited, no restraint can be imposed on it; but the emperors of the house of Holstein have more than once declared that they would wish to follow fixed laws in whatever appertains to the rights of individuals and corporations. Arbitrary enactments are partly abolished, indeed they are only enforced against the great, or courtiers less solicitous about liberty than personal aggrandizement.

Council of the empire.

The council of the empire has been instituted to render the laws and the administration less liable to change; the emperor presides over it, and the most important affairs are the subjects of its deliberation, but every matter connected with the foreign policy of government is reserved for the imperial cabinet. The senate or supreme tribunal is the highest court of judicature in the empire; it may extend its cognizance over all causes, but in some decisions, an appeal may be made to the royal clemency. The senate is divided into eight sections, three of which are held at Moscow, and five at Petersburg; its authority might be still more salutary, if it

Senate.

Holy synod.

could put an end to the corruption of the inferior judges. The holy synod watches over the interests of the established church, but its decrees are issued in the name of the emperor. The members of the Lutheran and reformed church enjoy the same privileges as in Finland, Esthonia, Livonia and Courland. No restraint is attached to any form of faith, and it is the enlightened policy of government to respect acquired rights, to confirm the privileges of provinces, towns, corporations and individuals; if any changes have been introduced, they are in general favourable to civil and religious liberty. The want of fundamental laws and social guaranties was acknowledged by Alexander, and that prince in his dying moments, meditated reforms, which any benevolent man might suggest, but which an energetick one only could put into execution.

BOOK CXII.

M. Hassel's Table of the Population in Russia, Poland, and the vassal States, 1st *January* 1823.*

Names of the Divisions.	Square miles, fifteen to a degree.		Population.	Number of inhabitants in each square mile.
Russian Empire	367,494	.02	59,263,700	161
Long. 17°—30′—222°—20′—E. of London. Lat. 38°—40′—80°—10′ N.				
DIVISIONS.				
A. Europeau Russia	72,861	.31	44,118,600	606
B. Kingdom of Poland	2,293	.23	3,541,900	1,544
C. Asiatic Russia	268,339	.43	11,663,200	43⅓
D. American Russia	24,000	.—	50,000	2¼
POLITICAL RELATIONS.				
1. *Contiguous possessions* (Including Georgia and the kingdom of Poland.)	293,701	.93	57,681,000	195
2. *Vassal provinces*†	73,792	.09	1,582,000	21
3. Republic of Cracow (Under the protection of Russia, Austria and Prussia.)	23	.31	96,000	4,118
A. EUROPEAN RUSSIA, namely,	72,861	.31	44,118,600	606
A. Baltic provinces including,	9,023	.23	3,861,300	428

* It may be seen from the critical observations on the table, that we do not adopt all M. Hassel's conclusions; but, in order to enable our readers to form a correct estimate of the Russian population, we thought it best to place before them the methodical and minutely calculated table of that learned writer. It was thus necessary to adhere to his results, although neither the arbitrary divisions of Asiatic and European Russia, nor several other subdivisions accord with our description, which is founded on physical principles.

Each of these square miles is equal to about twenty English square miles.

† The following are the details relative to the vassal provinces.

a. Imiretta, Mingrelia, Guria	407	.16	210,000	516
b. Tcherkessia (Circassia)	1,535	.76	550,000	368
c. Awchasa	238	.22	60,000	252
d. Daghestan	434	.82	184,000	373
e. Schirwan	445		133,000	299
f. Steppe of the Kirguises	31,681	.13	360,000	11
g. Tchukotski	15,050		35,000	1-3
h. Russian America	24,000		50,000	2 1-4

Table continued, &c.

1. Government of St. Petersburg	848	.32	844,900	994
2. Government of Finland	6,402	.79	1,378,500	215½
3. ——————— Esthonia	323	.93	302,600	935
4. ——————— Livonia	938	.62	754,000	803
5. ——————— Courland	509	.12	581,300	1,142
B. Great Russia including,	43,390	.25	23,777,900	538
6. Government of Moscow	474	.23	1,337,900	2,823
7. ——————— Smolensko	1,008	.68	1,325,700	1,314
8. ——————— Pskow	1,045	.41	865,200	827
9. ——————— Tver	1,135	.40	1,260,700	1,110
10. ——————— Novgorod	2,578	.39	915,500	216
11. ——————— Olonetz	3,587	.10	359,800	100
12. ——————— Archangel and Nova Zembla	16,225	.52	263,100	16
13. Government of Wologda	6,867		802,200	117
14. ——————— Jaroslaw	671	.88	1,038,100	1,545
15. ——————— Kostroma	1,808	.73	1,455,500	805
16. ——————— Wladimir	920	.64	1,334,500	1,449
17. ——————— Nishgorod	961	.45	1,379,900	1,435
18. ——————— Tambof	1,271	.33	1,422,100	1,118
19. ——————— Riæzan	781	.48	1,308,600	1,647
20. ——————— Tula	558	.53	1,039,800	1,860
21. ——————— Kaluga	395	.15	1,175,100	2,999
22. ——————— Orel	849	.87	1,299,500	1,529
23. ——————— Kursk	701	.66	1,649,000	2,350
24. ——————— Woronesch	1,547	.80	1,445,900	934
C. Little Russia including,	4,137	.82	5,674,000	1,371
25. Government of Kiew	978	.86	1,472,100	1,503
26. ——————— Tschernigov	1,189	.84	1,410,000	1,184
27. ——————— Pultawa	850	.76	1,877,500	2,207
28. ——————— Slobodes of the Ukraine	1,118	.36	914,400	817
D. Southern Russia	8,772	.87	2,316,600	265
29. Government of Iekaterinoslaw	1,417	.02	826,100	583
30. ——————— Kerson	1,206	.58	459,400	380
31. ——————— Taurida	1,646	.47	346,200	211
32. Country of the Donian Cossacks	3,611	.58	369,800	102

BOOK CXII.

Table continued, &c.

33. Province of Bessarabia	891	.22	315,100	353
E. Western Russia including,	7,537	.09	8,488,900	1,125
34. Government of Wilna	1,081	.26	1,357,400	1,255
35. ——— Grodno	326	.19	868,100	1,619
36. Province of Bialystock	158		224,600	1,422
37. Government of Witepsk	668	.11	934,900	1,398
38. ——— Mohilew	918	.35	985,400	1,073
39. ——— Minsk	1,832	.36	1,160,100	633
40. ——— Volhynia	1,394	.47	1,496,300	1,072
41. ——— Podolia	948	.35	1,462,190	1,542
B. Kingdom of Poland *(See Poland.)*	2,293	.23	3,541,900	1,514
C. Asiatic Russia	258,339	.48	11,683,000	43⅓
A. *Kingdom of Kasan*	11,521	.79	5,746,250	498
1. Government of Kasan	1,123	.90	1,028,150	915
2. ——— Wiatka	2,221	.98	1,293,800	582
3. ——— Perm	5,996		1,269,900	212
4. ——— Simbirsk	1,402	.14	1,119,400	798
5. ——— Pensa	777	.77	1,035,000	1,331
B. *Kingdom of Astrakhan*	13,823	.03	2,598,700	118
6. Government of Astrakhan	3,899	.88	222,700	57
7. ——— Saratow	4,297		1,333,500	310
8. ——— Orenburg	5,626	.15	1,043,500	185
C. *Provinces of Caucasus*	5,478	.54	1,673,500	305
9. Province of Caucasus	1,585	.08	146,500	92
10. ——— Georgia	832	.40	390,000	373
11. ——— Imeretta, Mingrelia, Guria, Awchasa	645	.43	270,000	418
12. Tscherkessia (Circassia)	1,535	.76	550,000	368
13. ——— Daghestan	434	.82	184,000	373
14. ——— Schirwan	445		133,000	299
D. *Steppe of the Kirguises*	31,681	.13	360,000	11

E. Kingdom of Siberia	211,847	.22	1,602,000	7
F. Russian islands in the Eastern and Frozen Ocean	1,667	.90	11,550	7
G. Russian America	24,000		50,000	2¼
Republick of Cracow	23	.31	96,000	4,118

Critical Observations on the preceding Table.

Population of the Russian Empire.	According to M. Liechtenstein's Stat. Tab. 1819.	42,769,800
	——— M. Crome (Ueborsicht.)	45,392,283
	——— M. Wickmann (Darstellung) 1811.	42,265,000
	——— M. Ziablowski (Geografia, &c.) 1813.	44,909,888
	——— M. Wsewoloiski (Description, &c.)	46,000,000

It was first shown by *M. Balbi* of Venice, that these vague indications are much too low, and that to arrive at any thing like accuracy, it was necessary to make a sufficient allowance for the yearly and natural increase in the population. M. Balbi developed these principles in his admirable compendium of universal geography, (Compendio di Giografia Universale) and at a later period in his essay on Portugal. He likewise applied them to determine the population of Russia, and the proportion between the number of births and deaths in that country; a subject, on which M. Hermann had written many valuable articles in the memoirs of the academy of Petersburg, and by that means convinced government of the importance of tables of mortality. M. Balbi made use of these and other data, and fixed the population for 1822, at fifty-four millions.

M. Hassel adhered strictly to M. Balbi's plan, but thought it unnecessary to mention the labours or even the name of his predecessor. The census of 1796, and those of 1783 and 1816, are the basis of his calculation, and, as an equivalent to the increase in the population, he adds for each year, one and a half to every hundred inhabitants. Although the principle is simple, apparently certain, and indeed the only one of which the application can be general, it leads sometimes to inaccurate results.

1st. It appears from the observations of Count Bray that the arable land in many governments is not nearly so extensive as is generally supposed, and government believes the annual augmentation to be lower than that which is assumed in the statistical calculations.

The opinion of government is strengthened by the statements of some Russian authors. Ziablowski concluded that the population of Olonetz in 1813, was not greater than 245,238; whilst, according to the census of 1783, and the increasing progression, it ought to have been equal to 329,056.

The following is a more authentic example, and one taken from a fertile government. It appears from the census of 1796, that the inhabitants of Kasan amounted to 763,000. Now, according to the principle of proportional increase, there should have been 991,900 in 1816. But the census of that year makes the number only 943,179, consequently the difference is greater than 48,000, or more than a fifth of the supposed augmentation.

2d. There is a constant migration of Great Russians from the north to the south, along the Wolga and the Kama. Some boatmen and labourers return to their native land, but many do not, and the governments in the centre are partly peopled by the inhabitants of those in the north.

The Little Russians migrate to the Asiatic provinces, and the same change that takes place in the northern governments is thus effected. The habits of the Tartars are the cause of another variation, for whole hordes, like the Tartars of the Crimea and Bessarabia, remove for ever beyond the limits of the empire. M. Karaczay calculated that the population in the province of Bessarabia exceeded 433,000 at the time of the conquest; at present it is not more than 315,000.

3d. It might be easily proved that every calculation relative to the governments of Little Russia must be wholly uncertain in its details, because the boundaries have been so often changed that it is impossible to derive any data from the census of 1796, and Kiew was the only one in which a census was taken in 1806.

The same remark is applicable to other provinces.

Lastly, There are some parts of the empire, in which the increase is greater than one and a half to the hundred. Thus Novgorod had, according to the census of 1783, a population of 277,427 male serfs or peasants; the statistical tables give an accession of 51,098 in a period of thirteen years; but the total number, as determined by the census of 1796, amounted to 356,127, and the addition was therefore equal to 78,700. M. Ziablowski, who is not guilty of exaggeration, supposes the population of Minsk in Russian Lithuania, equal to 1,205,200 souls, while M. Hassel, on the other hand, cannot make it by his calculation, greater than 1,160,000. If attention be paid to the dates, it may be seen from the work of the Russian geographer, that the augmentation in Volhynia and Podolia is also greater than what is assumed in the geography of Weimar.

It follows from these remarks that the annual increase is very unequal in different governments, and also that the number of inhabitants in many provinces is still uncertain. But the total population in 1823, is not perhaps greatly overrated by M. Hassel, one or two millions may at most be deducted from it, and, as Russia must have

gained nearly that number in a period of four years, it may contain at present fifty-nine millions of inhabitants.

If Russia was as well peopled as Sweden, it might contain 95 millions; if its population was as compact as that of Germany, the number might amount to 210 millions, and on the supposition that the population was the same as in the Chinese empire, in which there are several vast deserts, it might exceed 432 millions. Although we make allowance for the obstacles, which depend on the soil, climate and institutions, the number of inhabitants may in less than a century be proportionably greater than in Sweden.

Table of the Population of the different Nations in the Russian Empire.

A. Slavonic nations.

1. Great Russians	34,000,000
2. Little Russians	9,000,000
3. Lithuanians	1,300,000
4. Poles	5,500,000
5. Lettonians and Kures	600,000
6. Bulgarians and Servians	30,000
	50,430,000

B. Finnic and Finno-Hunnic nations.

Finlanders (Ymes, Quænes, and Kareles,)	1,380,000
Ehstes	480,000
Lives and Krevines	3,000
Laplanders	9,000
Syriaines	30,000
Woguls	12,000
Permiakes	34,000
Tchouvasches	370,000
Tcheremisses	190,000
Mordvines	92,000
Wotiakes	141,000
Ostiakes of Obi	107,000
Teptiaires	114,000
	2,962,000

Population of the different nations in the Russian empire.

C. Tartar or Turkish nations.

Tartars or Turks Proper	1,204,000
Nogays	154,200
Truchmenes	200,000
Kirguis	360,000
Khivintzes	2,500
Boukhares (Tartars)	10,500
Meschtcheriakes and Arabs	37,000
Baschkirs	140,000
Teleoutes	1,000
Iakoutes	88,000
	2,197,200

D. Caucasian nations.

Grusians or Georgians	560,000
Lesghians	230,000
Tcherkesses or Circassians	190,000
Awchases	90,000
Ossetes	42,000
Midzhigis	43,000
	1,155,000

E. Teutonic and Scandinavian nations.

Germans	380,000
Swedes	56,000
Danes	1,200
	437,200

F. Mongul nations.

Buriaites	120,000
Kalmucks or Oelocts	75,000
Kalkas	18,000
	213,000

Population of the different nations in the Russian empire.

G. Different tribes on the north-east.

Tunguses		50,000
Samoides		20,000
Tribes of Yenisei (Klaproth)		38,000
Kamtschadales		9,500
Ioukaguires		3,200
Koriakes		8,000
		128,700
Esquimaux, &c.		
Tchouktches	50,000	
Kitaigues	3,000	
Tchugatches	5,000	
Konaigues	8,000	
Kenaitzes	4,000	
	70,000	
American Tribes		20,000

H. Different Asiatic nations.

Jews	460,000
Armenians	74,000
Tadjiks or Persian Boukhares	15,000
Zigeunes	10,000
Hindoos	500
Arabs	6,200
Parses	2,000
	567,700

I. Different European nations.

Moldavians	85,000
Wallachians	45,000
Greeks	21,000
English, French, &c.	6,000
	157,000

Table of the principal towns in the Russian empire.

Petersburg,	9,500	305,000
Moskwa or Moscow,	10,400	190,000
Warschau (Warsaw)	8,824	117,000
Kasan,	4,300	50,000
Kiew,	3,728	40,000
Astrakhan,	4,000	36,000
Odessa,	4,150	35,000
Tula,	3,800	35,000
Irkutzk,	2,500	30,000
Cronstadt,	2,000	30,000
Jaroslaw,	2,754	28,000
Tobolsk,	2,300	25,000
Kaluga,	3,608	25,000
Kursk,	2,340	25,000
Wilna,	3,000	25,000
Tver,	2,400	24,000
Riga,	1,687	23,000
Orel,	2,871	22,000
Orenburg,	2,866	20,000
Akmetschet,	2,000	20,000
Kharkow,	1,552	18,000
Tiflis,	3,684	18,000
Uralsk,	3,000	18,000
Neshin,	3,000	16,000
Mohilew,	2,100	16,000
Archangel,	1,933	16,000
Tomsk,	2,274	15,000
Simbirsk,	1,400	15,000
Reval,	1,584	15,000
Woronesch,	3,000	15,000
Torshok,	1,793	15,000
Tambow,	1,800	15,000
Tscherkask,	1,916	15,000
Akermann,	2,000	15,000
Witebsk,	1,943	15,000
Wologda,	1,664	14,000
Bolchow,	1,800	14,000
Achtyrka,	1,137	12,788
Nachitschewan,	2,487	12,108
Smolensko,	1,500	12,000
Pskow,	1,486	12,000

Table of the principal towns in the Russian empire.

Ustjug Weliki,	2,200	12,000
Nishgorod,	1,826	12,000
Jelisawetgrad,	1,600	12,000
Wiatka,	2,000	12,000
Endery,	3,000	12,000
Koslow,	928	11,502
Abo,	1,100	11,300
Mitau,	800	11,000
Wiaisma,	2,000	11,000
Pensa,	1,687	11,000
Sumy,	1,238	10,495
Lublin,	1,824	10,300
Tarku,	1,080	10,000
Toropetz,	1,206	10,000
Novgorod,	1,552	10,000
Kasimow,	1,800	10,000
Korotscha,	1,500	10,000
Putilw,	1,400	10,000
Tchernigow,	2,400	10,000
Pultawa,	1,200	10,000
Kherson,	1,500	10,000
Bender,	1,500	10,000
Berdyczew,	1,400	10,000

BOOK CXIII.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Kingdom of Poland. Republick of Cracow.

BOOK CXIII.

Division of Poland.

THE name of Poland, although effaced from ephemeral maps and statistical tables, is not likely to be soon forgotten; it must be remembered by geographers as long as any attention is paid to natural and national divisions. The fate of Poland appears to have been fixed for some generations at least, by the arrangements made at the congress of Vienna, but before these arrangements were settled, several treaties had been concluded, broken and concluded anew. The large provinces of Lithuania and the Ukraine, which were added to Russia, are, by the religion and language of the inhabitants, more Russian than Polish. The region on the Vistula, or the real Poland, has been divided, the southern portion forms at present the kingdom of Gallicia or *Austrian Poland*, which includes all the high country in the ancient monarchy; although subject to Austria, the administration is national, and the people are represented. The country in the centre, or a part of the former Great and Little Poland makes up the new kingdom which is united to Russia, the form of government is representative, the legislative and executive branches are in a great degree independent. *The republick of Cracow* on the west, is under the protection of Austria, Prussia and Russia, and lastly, the *great dutchy of*

Posen on the north-west is added to Prussia, but its provincial assemblies are not abolished. The wisdom of sovereigns has preserved a sort of union between these states, particularly between the three first, we shall therefore endeavour to give a connected account of them, without confounding one with another.

Name.

Poland or Polska signifies a plain; the early inhabitants, like many tribes, denominated it from the nature of the country, and they themselves were thus distinguished from the other branches of the great Slavonic race. Many examples of the same kind might be mentioned, a Chrowate or Croatian means a mountaineer, and the Po-Morzi or Pomeranians signify a people in the neighbourhood of the sea.*

Sarmatian plain.

The greater part of former Poland is an immense plain that extends from the Baltic to the shores of the Euxine, or at least to the small chains that cross the basin of the Dnieper on the south of Volhynia, and unite to the south of Lemberg with the first declivities in the Carpathian range. These declivities, though low, appear anew near Zamosk, between the Bug and the San, and also near Kielce and Konskie in the country between the Vistula and the Pelica. Low hills and headlands can only be discovered throughout the vast region, which extends to the north of these limits. Lithuania, Courland, White and Black Russia, Polesia, Podlachia, almost all Great Poland, Pomerelia and the whole of Prussia are in many places covered with a deep layer of sand, which is seen on the plains, and extends along the course of the rivers. It is of a white or light colour in the interior, and comparatively

* Michow, Chron. Reg. Pol. c. II. Dlugossi, lib. I. p. 22 and 45. Cromer, Polonia; edit. Elzev.

[The present article is chiefly derived from our own work on Poland, (Tableau de la Pologne) which was published in 1807, but the edition is now exhausted. Although cited by M. Hassel among the *valuable* works that he had consulted, it is very imperfectly analyzed in the Geography of Weymar. The substance of it is not to be found in Wybicki or any modern Polish author. Our information is derived from ancient writers, we are indebted to the moderns for few additional facts.]

BOOK CXIII.

dark near the shores of the sea.* But clay and marshy land are scattered in many parts of the sandy belt, one ridge traverses Samogitia,† and another, which is higher and intersected with lakes, forms Little Lithuania or the south-east angle of ducal Prussia. The land in the interior of Courland is strong and rich;‡ the same kind of soil, the same succession of plains, hills and innumerable lakes, the same transition from sand to clay and from clay to argil, are observable in Pomerania, Brandenburg, Lower Saxony and partly in Denmark.§ These Sarmatian and Germano-Cimbrian plains seem to rest on a foundation of granite, detached peaks of that rock rise in some places to the surface of the ground. Blocks of granite, quartzose pudding stones and crystals are scattered in many districts; amber, petrifactions, agates and madrepores are generally found at no great distance from them. The circular cavities near Birza, those in Lithuania, and the one that serves as a basin for the lake of Arend in Brandenburg have been formed in the same way.‖ That fact taken in connexion with the particular figure of the lakes, indicates an origin common to them all. Floating islands are not uncommon, the Poles call them the *plicæ* of the lakes, they consist indeed of the tissues of roots and plants attached in a manner not unlike the plica of the hair,¶ and some appear and disappear regularly at certain seasons.

Cavities.

Division of the waters.

The marshy plains on the east and south of the Baltic reach beyond the line which marks the separation of the waters between the different seas. That boundary is not, as M. Buach imagines, a range of hills, it is formed on the contrary by a continuation of lakes and marshes. The same appearance extends throughout Polesia and the great-

* Guettard, Mémoires de l'Academie des Sciences, 1762.

† Alex. Guagnini, p. 45. vol. I. of the Script. Rer. Pol. by Pistorius.

‡ Busching, Geog. t. I. part II. p. 283. The author visited the country.

§ D. Seetzen. See the quotation in the Mineralogical Magazine of M. Hof. Tom. I. article IV. p. 404.

‖ Merian, Topograph. Brandenb. p. 21.

¶ Rzaczinski, Hist. Nat. p. 161.

er part of White and Black Russia, or the waiwodats of Novgrodeck, Minsk and Polock. According to a popular tradition, the marshy countries formed in ancient times a little Mediterranean on the east of Poland, the south of Lithuania, and the north of Volhynia; it is affirmed indeed that the waters were drained by a king of Kiow, but there are no hills, which could serve as a dike for such a sea.* It may be remarked that the great rivers in Poland, although they flow towards two different seas, communicate with each other after heavy rains by means of their feeders, and inundate the country. Canals may be easily cut between all the tributary streams from Wlodawa in Poland to Sluck in Russia; but as barriers cannot be raised against the sand, these communications are blocked almost as soon as they are formed. The Priepetz, a feeder of the Dnieper, joins the Bug and the Niemen in spring and in autumn; Polesia is then inundated or changed into a lake.

Rivers and streams.

The heights, which separate the chalky lands of Volhynia from the rich plains of Podolia, form a chain or lofty ridge near Lemberg. The Bog, as we have already mentioned, takes its source in the south of these hills, and the Dneister rises on the same ridge at the base of the Carpathians. Both the rivers flow to the Euxine, their steep banks are lined with soft calcareous rocks, that contain gypsum, and support a thick layer of rich and dark mould.†

The *Bug*, which is apt to be confounded with the Bog, rises on the northern side of the same hills; according to the Poles, it loses its name when it joins the Narew; the last river flows from the plains of Lithuania, and is believed by the common people to be fatal to water snakes.‡ The Bug, it must be admitted, is not so large as the Narew, but its name is retained on the maps beyond their confluence at Sierock. The *Vistula* descends from the mountains of Silesia, is enlarged by the Bug or the Narew, the Pilica and

* Rzaczinski, p. 464.

† Zlewiski's notes, see Guettard, p. 298, 306.

‡ Dlugossi, lib. I. p. 13. Cromer, p. 61.

BOOK CXIII.

most of the other rivers in Great and Little Poland. The San, one of its feeders, was supposed to rise near the roots of an immense oak, that covered with its thick foliage the sources of the Dneister. The tradition is less inapplicable to the Stry, which might perhaps have been confounded with the Dneister, or considered its principal source.* The Wartha, like the Vistula, flows in a broad channel, and inundates the neighbouring fields; though not deep, it has the appearance of a large river, and its streams serve to enlarge the Oder.

The Polish rivers, after they overflow their banks, leave a rich deposite, by which the inundated lands are fertilized. The Niemen that limits the kingdom of Poland, is the only one not subject to inundations, uprooted trees are never carried down its course, the banks are never undermined by its waters.†

Climate of Upper Poland.

The climate of Poland Proper is necessarily modified by its position. The country, it must be recollected, is situated between two cold regions; it is surrounded on the east and the north by the central ridge of Russia, and on the south by the Carpathian mountains, which are exposed to an almost perpetual winter. The influence of the last climate extends to all the neighbouring regions; thus the thermometer has descended at Lemberg and Cracow to—20° and 22° of Reaumur.‡ All the corn in the neighbourhood of Cracow was blasted in the year 1654, by a severe frost that commenced on the day of Pentecost.§ The crops in the districts at the base of the Carpathians are often destroyed by storms of hail.‖

Climate of the plains.

The east wind or the coldest of any in the rest of Poland, arrives on the plains from the Russian ridge and the Uralian mountains. The north wind is milder and more humid,¶ but the west wind, which continues a great

* Dlugossi, p. 17. † Dlugossi, p. 21.

‡ Thirteen and seventeen degrees below zero of Fahrenheit.

§ Whitsunday.

‖ Rzaczinsky, p. 382, 703, &c.

¶ Conrad, Diss. de effect. frigor. Dantzick, 1670. Erndtel, Warsavia physice illustrata.

part of the year, is the harbinger of dense and unwholesome mists in the neighbourhood of Warsaw. The south wind passes above the Carpathians, and adds to the intensity of the cold.

It has been proved by a number of thermometrical observations that the Polish winter is not milder than that of central Sweden, although the difference in the latitude is equal to ten degrees.* The maximum of cold at Warsaw varied in a period of fourteen years from—8° to 25° of Reaumur, and the mean term was found to be equal to—17$\frac{6}{7}$°.† The greatest variations observed in a period of seventeen years at Upsal, were from—11° or 12° to 23°, and the mean term was—18½°. But it ought to be remarked that there were no remarkable winters in the Swedish as in the Polish series; for, with the exception of 1791, in which the maximum was only equal to 8½°, it amounted every other year to at least 12°.‡

Seasons of vegetation.

The time of vegetation may serve, as well as the thermometer, to indicate the temperature. The nut tree and the daphne mezereum begin to flower about the vernal equinox or about five weeks later than at Paris. The white poplars commence in March, but the juniper, the willow, the alder, the birch and the common ash are nearly a month later. The beech, the black elder, the barberry and the wild pear are never in blossom before May. Lint, asparagus, the walnut tree, the common elder and the briar flourish in June, and the *datura stramonia* in the month of July.§

Extreme variations.

The climate of Poland is very variable. Dlugossi informs us that in one year all the rivers were blocked from the month of October to the vernal equinox; in another season the Baltic was frozen, and many travelled on the ice from Dantzick to Lubek.‖ The weather is so mild in some

* Voyage de deux Français, t. IV. p. 40.

† Eight degrees below zero of Reaumur are equal to 14° above zero of Fahrenheit;—25° of R. to—24 1-4° of F. and—170 6-7° R. to—3 1-7° F.

‡ Twelve degrees below zero R. are equal + 5° F.

§ Erndtel, vividarium Warsaviense.

‖ Rzaczinsky, tract. VI. Sec. I. art. VI.

BOOK CXIII.

seasons, that the fields are clad with a new vegetation. The rose bushes near Dantzick were covered a second time with flowers, about the end of October, 1568. The same phenomenon happened again in the month of December, 1588, and such was the mildness of winter in 1659, that swarms of bees issued from the hives. These facts may be contrasted with others relative to Lithuania, which is not politically connected with Poland. The historian of Lithuania enters into curious details concerning the winters of 1414 and 1492.* The fields in a country under the fifty-fifth parallel were covered with flowers in the month of January; the corn rose from the ground, its spikes were formed, and the music of birds re-echoed in the groves. But the month of March was accompanied with a sudden and intense frost; in one day all the riches of the early summer were annihilated; the second harvest was not abundant, exhausted nature afforded but a scanty supply.

Meteors.

Globes of fire, parhelions, falling stars, aurora borealis and other phosphoric or electrical phenomena are frequently observed in Poland. It may be sufficient to cite, among others mentioned by the Polish writers, that fiery globe which seemed to detach itself from the body of the moon.† It appears from the obscure narrative, that King Uladislas Jagellon and his suite lost their way in a champaign country, and, like M. de Saussure in our own time, were enveloped in an electrical cloud.‡

Mists.

The air of Poland is in general humid and cold from the impure exhalations that rise from dark forests and the surface of vast marshes. Thus, although the climate is salutary to the natives, it is dangerous to foreigners.§ But the insalubrity of a cold and moist atmosphere is much diminished by the violent winds that circulate freely in these

* Kwialowicz, Hist. Lithuan. t. II. p. 6.

† Tylkowski, Physica curiosa, p. 9.

‡ Reinzer, Meteorology, cited by Rzaczinski.

§ Starowolski, Polonia, p. 98.

immense plains, and are so impetuous that they form sandy hills, and cover sometimes with sand whole farms near the shores of the Baltic.

Water.

The nature of the atmosphere and the soil enables us to account for the rapid corruption that takes place in the running and stagnant waters in different parts of Poland. The streams of the Dneister and the Vistula are often of a red colour, the lakes are occasionally covered with a green substance, and goitres are supposed to be produced from drinking the water in many springs on the Carpathians.

Minerals.

Few minerals are found in that large and sandy plain, which forms the northern and central portion of Poland. The land, as in all the northern countries on our globe, is incrusted with a ferruginous deposite, and every marsh and every meadow contain iron in a greater or less proportion. Marine petrifactions are common in many districts, and that enigmatical substance, which the learned call *succinum*, and the vulgar yellow amber, is not rare; large pieces are collected at Chelm and other places at a great distance from the sea.* It is remarkable that no saline substances, with the exception of nitre, have been observed in these regions, while an immense layer of fossil salt extends along the Carpathian mountains, which, as shall be afterwards seen in our account of Bochnia and Wieliczka, might afford a sufficient quantity of salt for the consumption of all the countries on the earth. One part of Poland, the portion between the Vistula and the Pilica, abounds in mineral and metallic substances, that were first wrought under the direction of M. Carosi, the engineer appointed by the unfortunate king Stanislas Leczinski.

Mines of Upper Poland.

Olkusz, a town on the north-west of Cracow, continued to flourish as long as the neighbouring mines were worked, its streets are now deserted, and its trade is ruined. The strata succeed each other in the following order; marl, breche, slate, lead mixed with silver, and a small portion of iron, calamine and limestone. It is proved by the records

* Guettard, Acad. des Sciences, 1762, p. 262.

of 1655, that the royal tithe on these mines amounted to 1225 marks of silver, and 1514 hundred weights of lead; now as the tithes were not rigidly exacted, the total produce, it may be allowed, was greater than ten times that quantity. It appears from the lowest valuations, that the ore extracted from the mines must have been worth 476,773 florins, which were then equal to 1,907,100 florins of the present day. Government has frequently deliberated on the best method of renewing the works, indeed it seldom happens that a mine which was so profitable has been so long neglected.* A mine of calamine is at present worked at *Ligots*, and the marble in the neighbourhood of Czarnowa is impregnated with lead. A remarkable combination has been observed in several places, it consists of white foliated lead mixed and apparently fused with sand.† The proportion of lead in the ore is as fifty-four to a hundred. The iron mines are the most common of any in Poland, those at *Drzevica* yielded every week about 90 hundred weights of ore, which was imbedded in sandstone.‡ The neighbourhood of Konskie, and many parts of the country are rich in alluvial iron. The largest works have been erected at Sucheniow, Jedrow and Samsenow. The iron at Brin near Wochoc is probably better than any other in Poland, but a small portion of copper is left in it, a defect that arises from an imperfect process of smelting. It is said that a large piece of native iron was found at *Miedziana Gora*;§ it is certain, however, that iron pyrites, blue copper, malachites and lead mixed with silver, have been collected near the same place. The last substance predominates, and the ancient authors evidently allude to it, when they inform us that the bishops of Cracovia loved the town of Slawkow better than their other possessions, because of its famous silver mines.‖ Cranow and Novagora are mentioned among the other places in which the same substance was obtained.

* Carosi, t. II. p. 136.

† Idem, ibid. p. 36.

‡ Idem, ibid. pp. 25, 33.

§ Idem, t. I. p. 22.

‖ Starovolski, Polon. p. 20. Cromer, Polon. Elzev. p. 52.

Quarries.

The metals are not the only riches of the country, good mill stones are obtained at *Mniow*, and fine marble in different districts. A perpendicular vein of copper pyrites, about three yards in breadth, crosses a marble hill not far from *Chencyn*. Lapis-lazuli is extracted from the vein, and the Polish writers affirm that the Palatine Bidzinski offered a table made of that precious stone, to Pope Innocent the Ninth.* Small pieces of green copper are found in the marble of Miedzianka, and the fields near Ostrowice and Gorna-Wola are covered with an efflorescence of vitriol and alum.† The country is of the alluvial formation, the minerals are composed of many substances confusedly joined together, and small fragments of different ores are scattered in the rocks.

Agriculture.

The soil in the kingdom of Poland is not as rich as in the Ukraine, and it is even less fruitful in many places, than Lithuania; still every sort of grain from wheat to millet, succeeds in the sandy plains and light mould. The country becomes more fertile as we ascend the Vistula, on the south of the Pilica towards Sendomir and Cracow, but the difficulty and costs of exportation are increased. The lands of the nobles are in general too extensive to be carefully cultivated, and many proprietors are not provided with a sufficient number of labourers. The peasants are free, and find it more profitable to settle on the domains of the crown, where more than a third of the population are at present concentrated. The Jews or the wealthiest men in the country, are by law prevented from purchasing heritable property; for that reason the price of land is very low, but the landowners cannot obtain the funds necessary to improve their estates without paying an exorbitant interest.‡ A great part of Masovia consists of large forests, and there is no scarcity of timber in most provinces. The sandy plains are covered with every variety of the pine; the fir and the beech thrive on the high

Forests.

* Rzaczinski, Histoire Naturelle, p. 65. † Carosi, t. I. pp. 75, 79, &c.

‡ Jacob's Report on the Corn Laws.

BOOK CXIII.

ground, and the oak grows wherever the soil is sufficiently strong.* The lime, the larch, the mountain and the common ash adorn and diversify the forests. The larch succeeds best in the neighbourhood of Rava and Sendomir, and also on the Biecziad mountains in Gallicia. The finest birch woods are those in the vicinity of Warka in Masovia, and the largest lime trees shelter the country near Prenn on the Niemen.†

Bees.

If we may believe the ancient Polish writers, bees were so common in their time, that old trees were not only filled with these insects, but the ground was covered with their cells. They prefer apparently the trunks of the fir, the *pinus picea*, the lime and the oak to every other tree.‡ Modern authors make mention of the large vats in which the ancient Poles kept hydromel, their favourite drink. So great were the dimensions of these vats, that men, it is said, have been sometimes drowned in them. The Danes, it appears from the Scandinavian historians, were equally fond of hydromel. According to Herodotus and other Greek authors, several countries on the north of the Danube were uninhabitable, in other words, the people were driven from them by innumerable swarms of bees.§

Fish.

The lakes and rivers are well supplied with fish, and large marshes or fish ponds, like those in Gallicia, have been dug by the inhabitants of Upper Poland.‖ The different kinds that frequent the lakes are the pike, the perch, the eel, the small turbot and the bream. Many carps are bred in the ponds, and trout, barbel, lampreys, salmon, sturgeon and other varieties are found in the rivers.¶

Birds.

The most common birds are the eagle, the falcon, the swan, the crane, the partridge, the quail and the starling;

* Martin Cromer. See the Collection of Pistorius, p. 80.

† Hassel, Geography of Weymar, XI. p. 198.

‡ Cromer, Polonia, Elzev. p. 50. Michov. Sarmat. lib. I. c. II.

§ Herodotus, book V. ch. X. Ælian, book XVII. c. 35.

‖ Rzaczinski, p. 162. Starovolski, p. 36.

¶ Cromer, Polonia, Elz. pp. 66, 67.

the thrush is comparatively rare. The *sniegula* or snow hen is seen in winter, the Poles consider it a great delicacy, and it is most plentiful in the neighbourhood of Lowicz.*

Quadrupeds.

The oxen in Poland are inferior to those in Podolia and the Ukraine. The horses, though not large, are well made, swift and strong. Sheep abound in the country, but the numerous flocks are covered with coarse wool.

Wild animals find shelter in the immense forests of Poland and Lithuania. The stag is now rare, but there are many wild boars, foxes, squirrels, hares, rabbits and beavers. The most destructive of any are the wolf and the glutton.

The art of training the bear, is not an uncommon trade in Poland and Lithuania; the country people lead them from one place to another, and their tricks serve to amuse the populace. The bear is rendered docile and tractable by severe treatment; when taken very young, it may be taught to carry different articles to its master, but its natural ferocity appears in old age, and it is never safe to keep one for any length of time.

On the existence of the Urus.

The Polish authors entertain different opinions concerning the existence of a wild animal, a kind of bull, which is called the *urus* or the *bison*. Some writers consider the two terms synonymous, others apply them to two distinct species, and it is maintained that the common ox is sprung from the one or the other.† The information collected by travellers and Polish writers on the subject, is vague and inaccurate.

There exists or there has existed in the forest of Wyskitca in Masovia, a race of wild bulls, nearly of the same form and size as the domestic animal, but all of them are distinguished by their black colour and a white line that

* Cromer, Polonia, p. 74.

† Pallas, Mémoire sur l'urus in the Novi, Comment. Petropol. Dictionnaire des Sciences Naturelles, article, *Bœuf*, &c.

BOOK CXIII.

extends along the back. They copulate with the ordinary cow, but no fruit has hitherto resulted from their union. *Tur*, an ancient Gothic word, that signifies a bull, is the name by which the inhabitants call them, and it corresponds in the modern Polish with *urus* or *aurochs*. A different account is given of an animal, which is supposed to exist or to have existed in eastern Prussia, Lithuania and Podolia. It is much larger and stronger than the bull, it has a protuberance on the back or between the shoulders, and a long and pendulous mane round the neck. Its head, though small in proportion to the rest of the body, is armed with long horns, which form a sort of crescent, that varies from two to four cubits. The Poles and the other Slavonic nations call it the *zubr*, *zumbro* or *zambro*, a word that now signifies a bison. If we judge, however, from the descriptions of the animal, it appears to be the same as the one that the Germans in the time of Cæsar called the *ur-ochs*, *aur-ochs* or primitive ox; for *ur*, *aur* or *aar* means in the Gothic languages, origin, commencement or remotest antiquity. *Wissen* or the Eddaic term for the bison, is probably derived from *bisse* or *wisse*, a substantive that denotes the rage to which the domestic bull is subject.* It is yet to be determined if the real urus was styled the bison, or if the first term was employed to designate a herd of ordinary oxen that had passed from the domestic to the wild state, and, lastly, if the accounts of the great size of the urus are not wholly fabulous.

Inaccuracy of names.

Cæsar, Pliny, Seneca and other Roman writers distinguish the bison from the urus, and characterize the first by its mane, and the second by its large horns. The only facts, that cannot be denied, are the existence of the urus in Germany in the time of Cæsar, and in Dacia during the reign of Trajan, the great length of its horns, which were imported into Greece and sold in that country at an early

* See the following passages in the Scriptores rerum Polonicarum, by Pistorius. Erasmus Stella, lib. I. in fine; Martin Cromer, tom. I. p. 84; Herberstein, t. I. p. 159. See also *Vigénère*, fol. XXIII. The animal described by Coxe and other modern travellers is the degenerate urus.

period,* and the antiquity of the Slavonic word *Zumbro.*† BOOK CXIII.

Poles.

The Poles are a strong, active and well-made people; their physiognomy is frank and prepossessing; light and chestnut hair are very common, and that circumstance, as well as the language of the country, may prove the frequent mixture of the Gothic and Slavonic race. Mustachios are worn by men of every rank, to shave the head is as general a practice, and a small tuft of hair, which is left on the crown, gives the people a foreign or rather an Asiatic appearance. The fair sex are celebrated in the north for their beauty, they surpass the Russian women in symmetry of form, and the Germans in the fineness of their complexion. They are better educated, more animated and agreeable in their manners than the women of Russia.

Diseases.

Although the natural strength of the Poles is increased by the hardy way in which they are brought up, they are exposed to a greater number of diseases than their neighbours. The maladies peculiar to the country are attributed to the quality of the air, which is rendered unwholesome by large and numerous marshes, to the want of good water, and the uncleanly habits of the great majority of the people. Some malignant diseases are not unfrequent in Poland, though unknown in Russia. The last country is situated under a higher parallel, but the maladies that are common to the two nations, are more contagious and dangerous in Poland.

Small-pox.

Endemic diseases are of rare occurrence, the small-pox is the most fatal of any. The cause may be owing to improper treatment, bad diet and the habitual negligence of the people. The Polish peasants are as little protected against the contagion of the most dangerous variolæ, as the Turks are against the plague. The healthy and the diseased are crowded together in narrow hovels; the fœtid vapours which they exhale, and the excessive

* Herodotus, VII. chap. CXXVI.

† Inscription of an epigram of Addæus, in the Analecta of Brunck, II. p. 241, No. 2.

BOOK CXIII.

heat of the apartment, add to the malignity of the evil. It is calculated that the mortality is in the proportion of six or seven to ten; such as survive are often frightfully disfigured. It is thus easy to explain why there are more blind people in Poland than in any other European country.

Syphilis.

Syphilis is very common, the proportion in the large towns is as six to ten. "Out of a hundred recruits that were examined," says Dr. Lafontaine, "eighty were attacked with it."* Men wanting the nose may be seen in every Polish village.

The diseases which we have enumerated are known in other European states, but plica is confined to the country, and it ought for that reason to be more fully mentioned.

Plica.

Plica is endemical in Poland and in some adjacent provinces. As the peccant matter expands, it passes into the hair, and binds it so closely together that it cannot be separated; it is not always confined to that part of the body, but appears often in the nails of the hands and feet. The disease spares neither age nor sex; it is observed in infants at the time of their birth, it attacks strangers on their arrival in Poland, but the peasants, the poor and the Jews are perhaps more exposed to it than the rest of the inhabitants. Some individuals are never afflicted with it, while others are never free from it at stated times. It has been shown by repeated observations, that plica does not depend on the colour of the hair, or on any particular temperament. The same disease is contagious, it is communicated by dress, by sexual intercourse and by nurses to children. It proves fatal to some of the lower animals, to sheep and such as are covered with long hair.

Unknown cause.

Plica is occasioned by a substance of which the nature is at present unknown, and which is probably as difficult to determine as the one that produces scurvy or syphilis. The matter is viscous and acrid, it is formed in the lymph, and deposited on the hair and nails. Cleanliness is no se-

* Dissertations Médicales sur la Pologne.

curity against it, and the development of the disease is neither promoted nor retarded by the state of the atmosphere, the quality of the water, or a particular diet.

It has been shown by a recent experiment of M. Schultes, that the matter contains a portion of uric acid, a discovery that may perhaps lead to a solution of the enigma.

But the epidemical character of the Polish plague is not likely to be soon explained. It may be asked why plica is almost exclusively the scourge of the Poles; it cannot be imputed to their diet, for it is favourable to health, and their occupations and manner of life enable them to bear great fatigue, and to resist many privations.

Effects of the disease.

The acrid matter passes into the hair when it is separated from the blood, and the disease then comes to a crisis. The patient may suffer much before its development, but plica is not accompanied in some instances with any pain. If the art of the physician is unavailing, if nature does not co-operate in removing the virus by the hair and the nails, or if it enters the noble parts of the body, the brain, the stomach or the lungs, it engenders fatal diseases. It may appear on the eyes, and occasion cataract, or it may become corrosive, and penetrate into the bones and marrow; excruciating agony is then the inevitable consequence, and death only can put an end to the sufferings of the patient. As soon as the crisis arrives, and the matter is formed on the hair or nails, every dangerous symptom disappears, and the individual is gradually restored to health. If a relapse follows, it may be concluded that the virus has not been expelled from the blood. When the quantity of matter is so great that the hair cannot contain it, the plicæ burst, and the matter is diffused over every part of the head. The cure must be effected by nature, after the folds are completely formed, they fall of their own accord, or are detached by a new growth of hair. The duration of the complaint varies, it is seldom cured in a short time, it continues generally from one to four months, and lasts sometimes longer than a year.

Origin of plica.

The time and the country in which the disease origin-

BOOK CXIII.

ated, cannot be determined. According to some Polish writers, it was introduced after an incursion of the Tartars, and was unknown in Poland before the year 1387. It is certain, however, that the tradition is mixed with many absurd fables, and even on the supposition that the opinion is well founded, it ought to be explained why plica was not communicated to the Russians by the Tartars, for the latter ruled over the greater portion of their empire during several centuries. The Russians who reside near the Polish frontiers, are seldom liable to it, yet the climate is the same, the diet and habits of the people are not different. The frequent use of the vapour bath in Russia, may perhaps act as a preservative against a disease, which, if not exclusively confined to the Sarmatian climate and the Slavonic race, is nowhere as prevalent or fatal as in Poland.

Departments.

The kingdom of Poland is at present divided into eight departments, their ancient names and the title of *waiwodats* are still retained; it may therefore be right to adhere to them in the following table.

	Square leagues.	Population of 1819.
1. Cracovia (Cracow)	587	445,000
2. Sendomir	784	432,000
3. Kalisch	892	512,000
4. Lublin	881	490,000
5. Plock (Plotsk)	805	364,000
6. Masovia	890	481,000
7. Podlachia	633	286,000
8. Augustowo	894	335,000

Warsaw.

Warsaw or, as it is styled by the Poles, *Warszawa* contains 120,000 inhabitants, and more than 9000 houses. The population is rapidly increasing, but although the town has been much embellished, too many ancient buildings, narrow streets, and wooden houses covered with straw, are suffered to remain. The capital is a place of great antiquity, it is mentioned by Barbaro, but it was little known before the union of Poland and Lithuania.

The town then rose into importance, the warlike and independent inhabitants of both states repaired to it, although both contended for the honour of giving a capital to the common country. Sigismond III. was the first king who fixed his court there, his successors made it their residence, and to conciliate the Lithuanians, the diet was transferred to it in 1566. Warsaw was taken in 1655 by the Swedes, who collected the immense booty that they had obtained in Poland. It was retaken by the Poles in the following year, and the quarter which is now called the city, then made up the whole of the town. The different suburbs, of which the most remarkable are the *Nowy-Swiat* or new town, Alexandria, Krakow and Praga on the other side of the Vistula, form at present the finest part of Warsaw. The city consists of a long and narrow street, in which the others terminate; but in the suburbs, the streets are spacious and clean, they are adorned in many places with palaces, churches and monasteries, that were built in the time of the Saxon kings. A traveller maintains that the greater part of the town is dirty, ill paved and never lighted at night.* The Polish nobles, accustomed to ride in carriages or on horseback, seldom thought of humble pedestrians or of the evils to which they submitted; but these defects have been remedied by the present government. The suburbs of Praga may be considered a town, for its population amounted to 6690 souls in the year 1782; the number was reduced after the visit of the barbarian Souwarow in 1795, to 3082. Dead bodies were carried down the Vistula to Prussia; and Warsaw dismantled by the plunderers, became a provincial town. The ancient capital, which was peopled in 1782 by 89,450 inhabitants, contained in 1797 not more than 66,572. A Prussian author supposes that the population including the garrison, was equal in 1804 to 74,900 individuals.† The place was stripped of its finest ornaments during these sad vicissitudes. The paintings collected by the last king

Quarters of the town.

Massacre at Praga.

* Fortia de Piles, t. V. p. 22.

† Muller's Geography, vol. II. p. 373.

BOOK CXIII.

of Poland, are now in Russia, a library consisting of more than 45,000 volumes, was purchased by the emperor Alexander, and presented by him to the Volhynian gymnasium. The famous library of the Zaluski, which belonged to the republic, and contained exclusively of duplicates, 200,000 volumes, was sent to Petersburg. The care of packing it was committed to the Cossacks, who threw many of the works into the street, burnt others, divided the rest into confused heaps, and put them into old chests or insecure boxes. The cargo was conveyed in sledges to Petersburg, but it often happened in the course of the journey, that a case gave way or sprang open from the manner in which the goods had been packed; on these occasions a soldier picked up the books, and pressed them down with the point of his sabre.* Warsaw was improved during the paternal reign of Alexander the First; the new university was liberally endowed by that prince, who made the town the residence of a viceroy and a primate.

Library of Zaluski.

Public buildings.

The bronze statue of Sigismond the Third is situated near the gate of Cracow, a marble column twenty-six feet in height serves as a base for the figure, which was erected in memory of Sigismond by Uladislas the Fourth, during the years 1643 and 1644. The *Zameck* or royal castle is at no great distance from the last monument, it was built on an eminence in the suburbs of Cracow by Sigismond the Third. One part of that large but simple edifice served as a hall for the diet, another part has been changed into an astronomical observatory. The gardens near the Saxon and the Krasinski palaces are the only public walks in the town; but the wealthy feel little inconvenience on that account, for the shady walks of Ujazdew in the neighbourhood, may vie with the *Prater* of Vienna. The gardens of Lazienki and the medicinal baths are much frequented, and many country houses are built near them. The island of *Kespa-Saska* is a dependence of the town, and the greater part of it is covered with fruit trees. *Wilanow*, which is

Neighbourhood of Warsaw.

* Tableau de la Pologne, p. 128. Notes communicated by the Poles.

not more than four miles from Warsaw, is visited by strangers, it belongs to the princess Lubomirska, and was formerly the residence of the great Sobieski. The commerce of the capital consists chiefly in the produce of the country; the manufactures are cloth, linen, carpets, stockings and hats; but carriages and harness are the only articles of good workmanship.

Other towns in Masovia.

The other towns in Masovia are insignificant. Czersk, a long time the residence of the Masovian dukes, contains only four hundred inhabitants, and although Brzesc, the capital of Cujavia, still retains its ancient fortifications, it is not peopled by more than nine hundred individuals. *Lowicz* and *Kuttno* are the towns next in importance to Warsaw; the first was the metropolis of an ancient principality, its population amounts to 3380 souls; the second boasts of 2600 inhabitants, but more than the half of them are Jews. The castle of *Nieborow* near *Sochaczew*, is more admired than any other in the department, it belongs to the Radzivills; a library of 20,000 volumes, and the delightful retreat of Arcadia, evince the taste of the proprietors.

Waiwodat of Kalisch.

The town of Kalisch in the *waiwodat* of the same name, is well built, the streets are paved, the most of them are broad, and the avenues that lead to the gates, are shaded with trees. Its population, which is not less than 8000 souls, its military school and its cloth and linen manufactories render it one of the most important places in the kingdom. The Prosna winds through a rich and picturesque valley, and waters the walls of Kalisch. Several small manufacturing towns are situated in the country between the Prosna and the Warta. *Piesern* or *Pizdry* is peopled by two thousand inhabitants, *Petrikow* or *Petrikau* is the seat of two tribunals, and *Wolborz* is the residence of the bishop of Cujavia. The fortified convent of *Czenstochowa* is famous from the siege that it sustained, and from a miraculous image of the Holy Virgin, an image that is every year worshipped by 40,000 pilgrims. The convent is built on the *Jasno-Gora* or the Klarenberg, the old and

BOOK CXIII.

new towns that surround it, contain a population of 3000 individuals.

Waiwodats of Cracow and Sendomir.

The country becomes mountainous in the waiwodat of Cracow, and the ridge between the Pilica and the Vistula is composed of sandstone or calcareous rocks; the mines in that part of Poland have been already mentioned. The first heights are observed at Bendzin towards Silesia,* and at Szydlowice in the direction of Warsaw.† The valleys that extend towards the Vistula, particularly those watered by the Nida, yield rich harvests, and the lands in the neighbourhood of Pinczow and Busco, which are set apart for the culture of anise, are as fruitful as any in the kingdom.‡ But the country on both sides of the road from Konskie to Malogosc and onwards to Olkusz, exhibits the appearance of poverty and want. The range consists of a number of hills intersected by valleys, for that reason perhaps, the heights appear to be very steep, but when examined from the top of the Lysa-Gora, it is seen that they form a long ridge flattened at the summit.§ The Lysa-Gora may be compared to a promontory; it terminates the table land of Little Poland on the north-west of Sendomir, and is chiefly composed of hard sandstone mixed with quartz. The mountain is observed at the distance of more than fifteen leagues, and commands the whole of Upper Poland. Numerous fountains rush from the arid rocks, where a pious multitude from remote regions, often meet in a monastery renowned for its miracles. The sides of the Lysa-Gora are frequently enveloped in clouds, and to that cause are attributed the sudden and heavy rains, which deluge the adjacent lands.‖

Ridge of Little Poland.

Kielce, Slakow and *Zarki*, three mining towns, are the only places worthy of notice in the waiwodat of Cracow.

* Zollner's Travels, vol. I. p. 255.

† Carosi's Travels in Poland, vol. I. p. 6. German edition.

‡ Rzaczinski, p. 86. Starovolski, p. 28.

§ Carosi, t. I. p. 227, &c.

‖ Rzaczinski, Tract III. c. II. art. 7. Sarnicki, Chorographia, in voce Mons. Crucis. The Lysa-Gora is often called the Holy Cross.

The palace of the vicar-general, and the school of the mines are situated in the first town, which contains 5000 inhabitants. Sendomir in the waiwodat of the same name, notwithstanding its two thousand seven hundred inhabitants, its fortified castle and its fields rich in wheat, must cede the title of capital to the small town of *Radow*, which is more advantageously situated. The Jews of *Opatow* carried on a lucrative trade in Hungarian wines; and *Rakow*, a decayed burgh, was inhabited by the Socinian sectaries, who were banished in 1643, contrary to law and the faith of treaties.*

Waiwodat of Lublin.

The mountains disappear on the other side of the Vistula or in the waiwodat of Lublin, that is watered by the *Wieprz*, and separated from Russia by the Bog. The province abounds in corn, wood and cattle, and although it is not probable, as M. Chawlkowski supposes, that the secale of Lublin changes in time into wheat, it contains a great quantity of flour, and is remarkable for its thin pellicle. Lublin, the second city in the kingdom, is peopled by 10,000 inhabitants; we observe in the town the ruins of the castle of Casimir the Great, the palace of Sobieski, some fine churches and the largest synagogue in Poland. The fairs are frequented by German, Russian, Armenian, Greek and Turkish merchants. *Zamosc*, a very important fortress, is built after the Italian manner with arcades round the houses, but as the fortifications were much extended, the number of habitations and inhabitants has been proportionably diminished. Pulawy on the banks of the Vistula, a place celebrated in poetry, belongs to the Count Czartoriski. The noble architecture of the castle and the church, the temple of the Sibyl, an imitation of an ancient edifice, the splendid library of the proprietors, and the scenery described by Delille, form an agreeable contrast to the vulgar details connected with geography. The castle of Klemenzow, the residence of the Zamoiski, is

Remarkable castles.

* Rzaczinski, p. 69.

BOOK CXIII.

situated in the same province, and two monuments of classical taste, the mausoleums of General Orlowski and the poet Kniaznin are not more than three miles from Pulawy. It is natural to admire the good feeling and generosity of nobles, who have used their wealth in promoting the happiness of those around them, but it must not be imagined that isolated palaces surrounded by hamlets and mean cottages, are any proof of general prosperity.

Rubieszow and *Tomassew*, two frontier towns, are enriched by their commerce in Hungarian wines, and their trade in hydromel.

Waiwodat of Podlachia.

The numerous lakes, marshes and forests, which separate the Bug and the Wieprz in the districts of Biala and Badzyn, form part of the romantic and fruitful waiwodat of Podlachia. Siedlec, the chief town, is noted for its white bread and ardent spirits, the former is perhaps as good as the bread in other countries, the latter is not quite so bad as the strong drink in the rest of Poland.

Waiwodat of Plock.

The waiwodat of Plock corresponds with the Prussian province of the same name, and many curious details concerning it are contained in the statistical tables published by authority of the Prussian government. Thus, the extent of the land in cultivation is equal to 127,984 *hufens*, and the forests, heaths, marshes and lakes make up 102,386.* The western districts are covered with forests of lofty oaks, but the ordinary return of secale and barley throughout the department, is not more than three to one. Plock, which contains seven or eight thousand inhabitants, is surrounded by orchards, and the Vistula flows beneath its walls. The town is enlivened by its trade, the fishermen cast their nets in quest of salmon, and many boats laden with the crops of Poland, sail down the river.† A Polish theatre and public gardens are the places of amusement. An official journal has of late years been established, and Plock is likely to become from its position,

Towns, &c.

* The Polish hufe or hide is nearly equal to thirty acres.

† Starovolski, p. 62. Muller, t. II. p. 377.

the first commercial town in the kingdom. The different places on the Narew and the Bug are *Modlyn*, an important fortress, *Ostrolenka* near the desert of the same name, which is an immense heath partly covered with natural woods, and *Pultusk*, that is almost encompassed by the Narew; the last town contains 2500 inhabitants, its lofty castle stands on the summit of a rock, and commands the adjacent plain. The river *Orzik* in the district of Mlava, flows a mile and a half in a subterranean channel.

Waiwodat of Augustowo.

Augustowo, the eighth and last waiwodat, comprehends a small part of Lithuania, now united to the kingdom and formerly to the great dutchy of Warsaw by the high powers that presided over the different divisions of Poland. The province of Bialystock ought perhaps to be added to the Polish crown, or it might be exchanged for the Lithuanian portion, which extends to the north of Augustowo, a small town founded by Sigismond Augustus, of which the population is less than 2000 souls. That narrow headland, if it may be so called, is fruitful and well cultivated, it confines the territory of Prussia on the west, and the course of the Niemen on the east and north. *Suwalki*, a place of four thousand souls, is now the metropolis of the waiwodat; *Novemiasto* and *Kalwary* are the towns next to it in importance. The convent of Wigry and its colossal walls are built on an island in a lake, and ten thousand pilgrims repair every year to the monastery of Seyny.

Surface and Population.

A surface of 6340 square leagues, and a population of 3,700,000 souls, are all that remain of the conquests of Boleslas in Red Russia, of the accessions gained by the union of Lithuania, Volhynia and Kiow under the Jagellons, and the additional territory obtained by the invasions of Moscow, Smolensko, Moldavia, Livonia and Prussia. Thus, countries are conquered by ambitious princes, and lost by their children or grandchildren. The victors become the founders of powerful empires, in the next generation, the people are governed by strangers. Nothing is more unstable than national greatness. The extent of Poland was not less than 38,000 square leagues, and its

BOOK CXIII.

population was greater than fourteen millions in 1772, but Poland is now annihilated, and San Marino is not changed.

Constitution.

The constitution granted by Alexander is representative, it consists of two chambers, the deputies of the one are elected by the nobles and the provincial assemblies; the senate is composed of ten waiwodes, who are appointed during life by the king, ten *castellans* that are nominated by the senate, and the same number of bishops.* The power of the monarch is very great, but not incompatible with civil and religious liberty. The privileges of the towns are respected, the condition of the peasantry has been improved, and the execution of the laws is guarantied, but the Polish laws are complicated and imperfect. The revenues of the crown are estimated at fifty millions of Polish florins, (L.1,291,667) of that sum seven millions are expended on the civil list. The army is wholly national, it is not yet completely organized, and the number of men is limited to 30,000 infantry and 20,000 cavalry.

Republic of Cracow.

The country which makes up the republic of Cracow is equal to ninety-four square leagues, and the population amounts to 100,000. The peasants, formerly protected by the clergy, were not so poor or ignorant as those in the rest of Poland, and additional benefits have been conferred on them by the present government. The appearance of the country is different; greater labour is bestowed on the roads, the fruitful fields are separated by quickset hedges, and the cottages, though built of clay and the branches of trees, are better whitened without and cleaner within; most of them are shaded by fruit trees.† Apples, plums, cherries, chestnuts, almonds and peaches are raised in the neighbourhood of the capital.‡

Aspect of the country.

Town. Monuments.

Cracow, once the metropolis of Poland, was the place where the ancient kings were crowned and interred. The

* A castellan or ancient Polish senator held the first rank in the state after the royal family.

† Carosi, t. I. 135. Zollner, t. I. p. 256, 267.

‡ Starovolski, Polonia, p. 18.

cathedral is remarkable for its numerous mausoleums; we may mention the monument of Sobieski, that was repaired by king Stanislas Augustus, and that of bishop Saltyk, in which the prelate is represented on a basso relievo, while the Russians are leading him captive to Siberia. The tomb of saint Stanislas is erected in the middle of the church; two lamps burn day and night near it, and masses are continually said over his ashes. Christian piety tries to perpetuate the glorious name of a true saint, who ventured to reprove a victorious monarch, elated with success and corrupted by debauchery, at a time when his baneful example was imitated by his people. Saint Stanislas Sczepanowski must always be ranked among the great men of Poland; it may be doubted that he restored the dead to life. Boleslas the Bold, in defiance of his miracles, resolved to kill the bishop in his own church; thrice he gave the order to his guard, and thrice they refused to injure so venerable a personage, and to profane so sacred a place. The king himself performed at last the office of executioner, he struck the saint with the hilt of his heavy sword, and stretched him lifeless at the foot of the altar.*

Commerce. University.

The population of the town amounts to 26,000 souls; its commerce and manufactures have been long in a state of decay. The university, formerly called the school of the kingdom, though open at present to every Pole, is not attended by many students. The immunities which the inhabitants of Cracow enjoy in all the provinces of ancient Poland, may perhaps be the means of rendering the capital more prosperous.

Tomb of queen Venda.

Two places of some celebrity are situated in the territory of the republic. The tomb of queen Venda may be seen at Mogila, at no great distance from Cracow. That warlike princess refused the homage of all the neighbouring kings. Ritiguer, a German monarch, more amorous or more ambitious than the rest, came at the head of an

* Zollner, t. I. p. 326. Dlugossi, lib. III. p. 291, 593.

BOOK CXIII.

army, and offered war or marriage to the royal Amazon. Venda marched boldly to meet the foe, but after the two armies came in sight of each other, the soldiers of Ritiguer refused to fight, alleging that it became them to defend their country, not to interfere in the private concerns of their sovereign. The prince unable to brook his disgrace, or to yield to a woman, laid violent hands on himself, and queen Venda returned in triumph to Cracow. Not many years afterwards, the princess lost all delight in her martial occupations, lived apart from her attendants, and resolved to put an end to her wretched existence. She might have repented of her past conduct, or the real cause might not have been known to historians, but it is stated that Venda, after sacrificing many victims to the gods, threw herself into the Vistula, and terminated her days to the great regret of her subjects. The story is more fully related by the Polish chroniclers, and few events recorded in the history of Poland are so well adapted for poetry.*

Baths of Krzeszowice.

No tragical associations are connected with another place in the neighbourhood of Cracow. The burgh of Krzeszowice, in spite of its barbarous name, is visited by the gay and wealthy Poles. A princess erected there a vauxhall and different buildings for the convenience of those who frequented the baths. The adjacent country is remarkable for its picturesque scenery. The Kudowa, which flows through the low grounds, waters verdant meadows and fruitful orchards, and the sandstone rocks on the heights, are cut into a thousand different shapes, which exhibit the image of Gothic castles. The white fir rises near ruins, and the sides of torrents are shaded by willows; but these retreats on the Sarmatian hills are often rendered inaccessible by rain and inundations.† The principal springs contain sulphur, magnesia and different neutral salts.‡

* Dlugossi, t. I. p. 55. Kadlubkon, t. II. p. 609. Sarnicki, p. 1051. Florus Polonicus, &c.

† Zollner, t. I. p. 260.

‡ Lafontaine, Dissertations, p. 168.

BOOK CXIV.

EUROPE.

Europe continued. Kingdom of Gallicia, or Austrian Poland. Polish Language and Antiquities.

BOOK CXIV.

Names of Galitzia and Lodomiria.

THE Austrian possessions in Poland are officially designated *Galitzia* and *Lodomiria*. The last term is only used in public documents, the first has been changed, and a new source of confusion has thus been introduced by geographers themselves. The name of Gallicia is almost the same as that of the Spanish province Galicia. It may be as well however to consider a more important subject, the origin and history of the inhabitants. Upper Poland and Red Russia formed together the high country of ancient Poland, and the northern part of the Carpathian mountains. These regions were peopled at an early age by the *Carpi*, the *Biessi*, the *Soboci* and other tribes, whose names appear to be Slavonic. The Carpi were the most celebrated of any in the fourth and fifth centuries, and as they were more correctly called Carpathes or, conformably to the Polish pronunciation, *Krapates* or *Chrabates*, it may be concluded that they were the same people, who extended their sway in the sixth century over *Great* or *White Chrobatia*. That mountainous region, for such is the meaning of its name, was the principal country of the Slavonic hordes that inundated the Roman empire. The western Russians, the *Russniaky* of the Polish writers, might have been

BOOK CXIV.

Historical dates.

confounded under the vague denomination of Slaves or *Slavini.* It is unnecessary to suppose them a colony of eastern Russians, that arrived about the fourth or fifth century. Their existence, as a distinct nation from the other Slavonians, particularly the Poles, is dated from the year 884, the epoch of the Hungarian migrations, but they must have existed as a people, or formed a mass of inhabitants long before that period. The Hungarians or a number of Finnic tribes left the provinces, which now make up central Russia, invaded first the powerful state of Kiow, and entered from choice or necessity into a treaty with the Russians, by which they agreed to abandon their territory, and to seek a country in a different land. They travelled in peace through the two Russian principalities of Galitz or, according to the Polish orthography, Halicz and *Wlodomir* or *Lodomer;* they remained several weeks in these states, and received hostages and considerable reinforcements. Guided by the Russian nations, the Hungarians crossed the Carpathian mountains by the forest of *Honos*, and settled in the provinces of *Ungh* and *Beregh.* The position of two Russian principalities may be determined by their march. When Wlodomir, great duke of Kiow, and sovereign of these principalities, made war in 981 against the Leches or Poles, *Przemysl* was the most important place that he gained from the enemy. The Poles, under the command of Boleslas, commenced their conquests by retaking the same town. The history of the frequent wars between the Kiovian Russians, the Poles and Lithuanians, may afford us some information concerning many other places then the capitals of petty states, among others, *Iaroslav*, *Lubaczow*, *Trembowla*, *Leopolis*, *Lwow* or Lemberg; the last town was founded by prince Leo in the year 1200.* The extension of the western Russian nation was nearly as great on the side of Poland, as on that of *Red Russia*, Wlodomir in Volhynia appears to have been the most northern town, it was contiguous to the

* Lemberg is the German name of the town.

frontiers of Black Russia, at that time subject to Lithuania. All the Polish and Hungarian chroniclers agree that Russia or Ruthenia lay to the north of Hungary, from which it was separated by the Carpathian mountains. The name of *Gallisia, Galitza* or *Gallea* was well known about the middle of the twelfth century, it is mentioned in the works of Arabian, Byzantine and Icelandic geographers, who flourished in that period. It became gradually of more general application, and was in time confounded with Russia. The same name is used in the treaties of 1412 and 1423, by which the Hungarians ceded the country to the Poles.*

Hungarian influence.

The history of these states forms a long and tiresome succession of revolutions, in which the Hungarian kings appeared sometimes as conquerors, at other times as the avengers and restorers of dethroned princes. It may be remarked, without entering into details, that by the cession of 1423, the king of Hungary renounced merely his rights *for the time*, an equivocal phrase that gave rise to fresh contention. But Red Russia, the only part occupied by the Hungarians, did not comprehend that portion of Upper Poland, which is now incorporated with Gallicia.

It is obvious from the constitutional law of Hungary, and from the oath taken by the princes at their coronation, that if any ancient province be reconquered, it must be united to the kingdom; still however, Mary Theresa having obtained Gallicia and Lodomiria in the name of Hungary, governed them as a distinct state. The claims of the diet have remained and are likely to remain ineffectual.

Physical description.

The southern part of Gallicia is mountainous, but the greatest elevations are lower than those in Hungary, none reach to the height of 6000 feet, and few are equal to four thousand. They are more frequently called the Czerna Gora than the Carpathians; indeed the only remarkable summit is that of the *Babia Gora*, from which may be seen a great part of Gallicia, Poland and Silesia. The

* Suhm, Memoir on Gallicia and Lodomiria. See the Transactions of the Society at Copenhagen, XI. p. 471.

BOOK CXIV.

Babia is separated from the Tatra mountains in Hungary by a lofty plain; its summit is composed of "primitive foliated sandstone," and is probably higher than 4800 feet, for it is above the zone of the *pinus pumilio*.* Some mountains situated on the frontiers are still higher, their summits or peaks are formed of compact limestone or grawacke. The sides of the Babia and of other heights in the country to the south of Cracow, are nearly perpendicular, and large pieces of rock are sometimes detached from them.† The most of the mountains in Gallicia are apparently composed of sandstone, but extensive layers of carbonated iron and beds of rock salt may be observed in different directions. The hills are generally formed of argil, and masses of bituminous sandstone are not uncommon on many of them.‡ Meadows and heaths are scattered on the alluvial lands along the valleys of the Dneister and the Sann. A narrow belt of moving sand extends from Cracow to Lemberg, and red resinous pines are the only trees that grow on it.§ The country from the neighbourhood of Lemberg to Komorno on the west, and to the frontiers of the kingdom on the east, forms an argillaceous ridge abounding in lakes. The heights that crown the ridge, are called the Biecziad mountains.‖

Hills.

Climate.

Gallicia is exposed from its position to a north-east wind that arrives from the central ridge of Russia, and is often accompanied with excessive cold. The soil is very humid, and the quantity of rain that falls during the year, is much greater than in any of the neighbouring countries. Inflammatory and bilious fevers are not common diseases, but rheumatic and nervous fevers, phthisis, dropsy, syphilis and plica remind the traveller of all the plagues in Poland. The Gallicians and Poles eat the same coarse and unwholesome bread, both drink too freely of ardent spirits, and the

* Lettres de M. Schultes. † Rzaczinski, Tract III. sec. I. art. 2.

‡ Carte Géologique de Beudant. § Zollner's Travels, &c. I. p. 255.

‖ The Biecziad mountains, according to Rzaczinski, commence at Gorlice, and, according to Dlugossi, at Soby.

want of good physicians is severely felt in the two countries.*

Productions. Grain.

Grain forms a very important part of the produce, and the whole province, in as much as relates to its culture, may be divided into three almost equal parts. The first is composed of mountains and marshes in which the plough cannot pass; the second is formed by plains of sand that sometimes yield late harvests; and the third is made up of good arable land, in which the ordinary return is as five or six to one. Leguminous plants and almost every kind of grain are cultivated, but the most common crops are wheat, oats and buck-wheat.† The best lands are those in the districts to the east of Lemberg, and in some parts of the circle of Belzk. Grain is seldom sown on the sandy or mountainous regions, and its return in that part of the country is never greater in good seasons than three or four to one. The wheat is exported, the oats and buck-wheat are consumed by the people, and the potato, which has been introduced of late years, is now common in the circle of Jaslo.‡ Asparagus, water-melons and other plants grow spontaneously and in abundance. Vineyards were planted in the neighbourhood of Lemberg, but the rigour of the climate, although under the same parallel as Paris, compelled the inhabitants to abandon the culture of the vine. The quantity of tobacco raised annually varies from twenty to thirty thousand quintals. Lint and hemp are generally cultivated, but chiefly in the district of Przemisl; the linen made in the country is coarse, and the demand for it is confined to the province. A plantation of rhubarb near Makrotin contains upwards of 40,000 plants.

Cattle, &c.

There were more than a million of oxen, and nearly 300,000 horses in the country about twenty years ago; but the horses were small and ill kept. The breed, however, has been much improved of late years, and the horses for the Austrian cavalry are mostly imported from Gallicia.

* Schultes, Letter XVII. † Rzaczinski, p. 67, 68. ‡ Hassel, XI. p. 433.

BOOK CXIV.

Several thousand lakes or ponds well stocked with fish, are situated in different parts of the province; the largest, or those in the district of Lemberg, are not less than a league in length and in breadth, and the revenue derived from some of them has amounted to 60,000 florins.*

The iron mines, though not very valuable, have been improved by the Austrian government; it is stated that they yield forty thousand hundred weights of native iron. Copper is wrought at Poschoryta, and lead mixed with silver at Kerlibaba. Marble is found in the circle of Stanislawow, or the ancient Pokutia. The town of Halicz or Galicz was so called from its salt springs, the term has been extended to the whole kingdom, and we are thus perhaps enabled to account for the name of the ancient Halizones. Salt is extracted from twenty-six springs in Gallicia, but fossil salt is much more abundant, and it is worked in the famous mines of *Bochnia* and *Wieliczka*.†

Salt lands.

Hills flattened at their summits extend along the northern side of the Carpathian chain throughout its whole extent. The first stratum in these heights consists for the most part of clay, below it is a layer of fine and humid sand, which is succeeded by a bed of sandy marl, the fossil salt is found under the marl, and in some places in the midst of it. The sandy stratum is seen on the surface of the plain from Cracow to Lemberg, and the hills of argil commence at the height of a hundred and fifty or two hundred feet above the level of the Vistula. Fossil salt

* Starovolski, p. 36. Opalinski, Pol. defensa. The number of fish ponds in eastern Gallicia is equal to 3359.

† The following are the best accounts of the mines. Anonymous paper in the transactions of the Royal Society of London, July 1760. See the German translation with notes in the *Hamburgisches Magazin*, t. IV. article III. p. 275. Schober's Physical Description, &c. Hamburgh Magazin, t. VI. chap. II. p. 215. The author was the director of the mines. Mémoire de Guettard, membre de l'Académie des Sciences, 1763. Observations, &c. by Berniard in the Journal de Physique, 1780. Description, &c. by Hansen, inspector of the mines, published by M. Zollner in the *Berlinisches Magazin*, first year, c. III. p. 54. Lettres de M. Schultes in the *Anciennes et Nouvelles Annales des Voyages*.

or salt streams are observed wherever excavations of moderate depth have been made, and sulphureous and bituminous springs rise near the mines of Bochnia and Wieliezca.

Mines of Bochnia and Wieliezca.

The Polish historians and geographers maintain that the mine of Bochnia was discovered in the year 1351. The merit of the discovery is attributed to Saint Cunegonde, a Hungarian princess, the wife of Boleslas the Fifth. Although the early accounts are mixed with fable, it is probable that Hungarian miners were sent by the queen into Gallicia.* But the mine was neglected or imperfectly known before the year 1442, and the works at Bochnia are now less extensive than those of Wieliezca.† Moczinsky supposed the produce of both the mines under the Polish government, to be equal to ten millions of Polish florins, and that the expense of working them absorbed nine-tenths of that sum. But, in consequence of the improvements introduced by the Austrians, the nett produce is not less at present than two millions of German florins. The mine of Bochnia, says M. Schober, consists of a long subterranean passage, which is 750 feet in breadth from north to south, 10,000 in length from east to west, and not less in some places than 1000 or 1200 in depth. The entrance is surrounded by crystals, the salt extends in the form of veins, it is finer than that at Wieliczka, and the best kind is found at the greatest depths. No part of the mine is damp, alabaster is observed in several places, and the workmen often find pieces of black and decayed wood. The salt is broken into small fragments, and put into barrels.

Details.

Wieliczka is divided into three parts, the St. John, the Old and the New Fields. The town is not only completely undermined, but the works extend on the one side to the distance of 6000 feet from east to west, and on the other to 2000 from south to north. The depth beneath the lowest part of the valley is about 800 feet. Such are the dimensions mentioned by M. Busching, but according

* Dlugossi, lib. VII. p. 719. Sarniki, Chronogr. voce Bochnia.

† Carosi, Travels, t. I. p. 182.

to Hansen and Zollner, the length from south to north is equal to 1,100 *lachter*,* the breadth from east to west to 400, and the depth is not greater than 123. Ten pits are connected with the mines, but that of *Wodna-Gora* serves as an outlet for the water, which filters from the high ground, no spring flows from any part of the excavations. A winding stair of four hundred and seventy steps was constructed in the mine of *Leszno*, by order of king Augustus III. The cost of the work amounted to 40,000 Polish florins.† Travellers descend the pits of *Danielowitz* by means of ropes, and most of them on their arrival at the first mine, are struck with the size and cleanliness of the alleys and vaults. Chapels or altars cut in the salt, and adorned with the image of a saint, or a crucifix, before which a lamp continually burns, are seen in the different passages. The chapel of St. Anthony is more than thirty feet in height, the adjacent chambers are very large, many are filled with barrels of salt, provender for horses is kept in others, and some are converted into stables. There are seldom fewer than twenty or thirty horses in the mines; but the number depends on the quantity of salt that is exported in different seasons. If water passes into the floor or the roof, crystallizations are formed and heaped above each other in thousands; when these places are lighted by many torches, the spectacle is brilliant, but not so dazzling as might be inferred from the descriptions of some ancient travellers.‡

The air is wholesome, although a nitrous gas is formed, which rises to the roof of the vaults, and is sometimes inflamed by the approach of lamps; it is called *saletra* by the miners, and emits in burning a pale red light. Seven hundred workmen are employed, but none of them pass their lives in the mines, as some credulous writers and travellers affirm. Accidents are not of frequent occurrence, large pillars of salt are left at certain distances

* A measure of five feet.

† Zollner, Voyage, t. I. p. 281.

‡ Carosi, t. I. p. 173.

to support the roofs, but notwithstanding these precautions, part of the works fell in 1745. Fires were occasioned by negligence in 1644 and 1696, a long time elapsed before they were extinguished, and most of the scaffoldings were destroyed. Salt is found in large and shapeless masses in the two first stories, and the workmen may cut blocks of three, four and five hundred cubic feet. Three different kinds of soil and salt are observed. The first is a dark and grayish marl, humid to the touch, and mixed in some places with gypsum. *Ziclona* or green salt is deposited in the stratum, it contains a small portion of marl, a circumstance that accounts for its colour. Several varieties of the same salt may be enumerated, *spisa* is generally used in the country, *lodowaty* or glazed salt is combined with chalk, and *jarka* signifies saline sand. The second kind of soil is an unctuous marl, that abounds in shells, and the third is composed of impure salt, gypsum and pyrites. It is in the *zuber* or last mixture, that the rock salt and crystallizations appear; they assume the form of cubes or rectangular prisms. These deposites rest on a layer of marl and lime, below which is the *orybakowa* or regular stratum of fossil salt, the purest and most compact of any. The beds are alternately succeeded by argil, slate and gypsum; their direction is from west to east, but they incline towards the south, and consequently towards the Carpathian mountains. The upper part of the saline strata resembles a sea from its undulations, while the base or lower part seems to form a perfect level.*

Different kinds of salt.

Lemberg, Lwow or Leopol, as the Poles call it, was formerly the capital of Red Russia, and it is at present the metropolis of Gallicia. The place is large, the streets are spacious, well paved and cleanly kept; they form a remarkable contrast with those of the other towns in the country. The public buildings and many private houses add to the imposing appearance of the city, and are likely

Town of Lemberg.

* Zollner, p. 292, 296, &c.

BOOK CXIV.

to excite the wonder of travellers accustomed to the mean towns in Poland. The phenomenon may be perhaps attributed to the proximity of Constantinople; at all events, Greeks often found refuge at Leopol during the thirteenth century.* There were at one time seventy-two churches in the city and suburbs, but the number was reduced to twenty under the reign of Joseph II., which is still sufficient for a population of 50,000 individuals, among whom are 13,232 Jews, and as many Greeks and Armenians, that frequent synagogues or temples, and participate, like all the Gallicians, in the blessings of religious liberty. The ramparts are now changed into streets or public walks, and Lemberg carries on an advantageous and profitable trade with Russia, Turkey and the other neighbouring countries.

Manner of life.

"You may see," says an able traveller, "a metropolitan, a Greek and Latin bishop, an Armenian pontiff and a great rabbi living together on friendly terms. The utmost harmony prevails, and, if the discipline be relaxed, it is also improved, for many catholic priests abandoning celibacy for the holy bonds of wedlock, are not less respected on account of their wives and numerous offspring, although the same privilege is forbidden to their brethren in other countries. The manes of Joseph II. seem to protect the land, and the fruits of his reign are public liberty and religious toleration."†

Polish part of Gallicia.

The rest of Gallicia may be divided into two portions, which in their relation to ethnography and history are wholly distinct. The first of these divisions forms a part of Little Poland, and is inhabited by Poles. *Rzezow* and *Tarnow*, two towns on the plains near the Vistula, are each of them peopled by four or five thousand individuals;

Towns.

* Bladimir (Wlodomir), regent of Galitza, was the friend of the emperor Manuel. Andronicus lived in exile at the court of *Ierosthlabus* (Jaroslaw), another prince of the same country. Cinnam. lib. IV. c. II. lib. V. c. XIV.—XVI. Nicetas, tom. I. p. 68, 69.

† Schultes, Lettres dans les Anciennes Annales.

both carry on a trade in linen and different manufactures, and the value of the articles sold or exported annually from Tarnow amounts to 1,200,000 florins. *Podgorza*, a modern town protected by privileges and immunities, lies opposite to Cracow. The wealth of *Andrichow* and *Kenty* is derived from their linen, they are situated at the base of the Babia-Gora. *Biala* is built in the same part of the province, and its cloth is sold throughout Gallicia. The towns on the Carpathians are *New-Sandec*, Gorlice, which is sometimes called Little Dantzic on account of its manufacturing industry, and Krosno, a place of 5000 inhabitants, and the mart of the Hungarian wines. A great quantity of iron is wrought in the mining villages on the valleys watered by the Upper Sann.

That part of Gallicia or of the former Upper Poland is inhabited by two distinct people. The *Mazurakes* or the natives of the plains resemble the other Poles, but the *Gorales* or mountaineers are very different.*

Gorales.

They appear to be a particular people, distinguished from the other Slavonians by their lighter make and more expressive features; but their small eyes and the saliant *zygoma* indicate their connexion with the Slavonic race. More lively and robust, more docile and cunning than the Slavonians on the plain, their ancient enmity against them may be repressed, but it is not diminished. The lowlanders of past times let no opportunity escape of harassing the mountaineers, who, irritated or driven to despair, often invaded the plains and laid waste the lands of their oppressors. Their enemies rarely ventured to approach the mountain passes, those who were so bold, seldom or never returned. The incursions have been checked during the Austrian administration, and by the punishment of many Gorales, the rest have been intimidated. Although prohibited from carrying the axe, they still appear with it on their mountains, but it is no longer employed for an unlawful purpose, and every traveller may now visit the country,

* Schultes.

BOOK CXIV.

or reside in it without danger. The axe is a national arm, which the Gorales handle with great dexterity, they can hit any object with it at the distance of forty yards; the same weapon is considered an ornament, the people never lay it aside during their games or the dance.

Manner of life.

The mountaineers return from the plains about the beginning of winter, but they seldom gain enough to provide for their subsistence. It often happens that they are obliged to leave their cottages, and to seek elsewhere for a livelihood, after having passed the summer in tending their flocks on heaths and deserts.

Those who migrate, and the number is not inconsiderable, are more fortunate, they follow the trades of weavers, hucksters and pedlars, and are scattered in every part of the Austrian empire. The hemp and lint raised on the mountains are very coarse, and perhaps not worth the trouble of cultivating, but the indigence of the inhabitants compels them to submit to any sort of labour. The household furniture made by the people is sold on the plains; its cheapness is its only recommendation, but it is doubtful if people willing to purchase it, could be found in any other country than Poland. The wood of which the different articles are made, is every day becoming more rare. The soil is too sterile for the production of wheat; oats, barley and buck wheat succeed, but the culture of the last grain is not well understood by the mountaineers.

Food.

The bread consumed in the country is made of oats, which the people grind in handmills, the coarse flour is mixed with part of the chaff, and a cake without leven and without salt is baked under ashes. The form of the *platski* or cakes is circular, generally about a foot in diameter, and half an inch in thickness. Their coarse bread, potatoes, cabbage, milk, butter and cheese make up all the food of the Gorales. Constant health and great longevity are the rewards of their frugal diet. M. Schultes saw several persons that had reached their hundredth year; and the same writer observed one individual of a hundred and twelve, labouring his field with as much activity as a young

Longevity.

man of twenty. That extraordinary person married for the third time at the age of a hundred and ten, a year afterwards he had a son, and the chastity of his wife, it is added, was above reproach.

Costume.

The dress of the Gorales is not costly, indeed every man is his own tailor, weaver and shoemaker. Each individual dresses his own leather, and attaches the different pieces in the same shoe with thongs, according to an ancient method, which has been long abolished in civilized countries. The summer dress consists of coarse hempen stockings and a shirt of the same kind, that is worn above a jacket, and bound round the waist with a belt. White stockings made of coarse woollen cloth, and a brown pelisse of the same substance form part of the winter costume. The men weave and full their cloth, which is supposed to be impervious to rain. Thus, the Gorales might be wholly independent of their neighbours, were they not obliged to purchase their hats in the adjoining burgh of Makow.

Rousniak portion of Gallicia.

The eastern part of Gallicia is inhabited by a people of Russian origin. Przemysl and Jaroslav, two towns worthy of notice, were formerly the residence of grand dukes and princes; both are situated on the Sann, and each of them possesses a population of six or seven thousand souls. Przemysl is defended by a strong castle on a rock, Jaroslav is built on a hill, and its principal ornaments are the church of the Panna Maria or Holy Virgin, and the romantic site of the ancient college of the Jesuits. The northern districts are well cultivated, and the great majority of the inhabitants are husbandmen. *Belz*, however, forms an exception, for its trade chiefly consists in potashes. The privileged town of *Brody* on the north-east frontier is peopled by twenty thousand individuals, of whom more than a third are Jews. A great trade is carried on with Russia, the Israelites have endowed a college and a commercial seminary, but their own houses are mean, dirty and ill furnished. *Sambor* and *Drohobitz*, two towns in the south, may each of them contain 7000 souls, the people in the one are employed

BOOK CXIV.

in manufacturing and bleaching linen, and if the commerce of the second is improved, it must be attributed to the synagogue. The population of Halicz or the ancient Gallician capital is not equal to 4000, and consists chiefly of Jews belonging to the sect of the Karaites; their ancestors were settled in the country before the twelfth century, for the Byzantine writers mention among the allies of the emperor Manuel, the Chalisii that adhered to the Mosaic law.* Stanislawow is a place of much greater importance, indeed if we may judge from the plan that has been published, it is likely to become the principal fortress in the province. The flourishing town of Sniatyn is situated in the district between the Pruth and the *Pokutian* heights,† its population amounts to six or seven thousand, and it is much frequented on account of its fairs, at which oxen, horses, honey, wax, and other articles imported from Moldavia are sold.‡ *Kutty* is partly peopled by a colony of Armenians, who are employed in dressing Morocco leather.

Russini or Rousniaks.

The people in these central and eastern districts, although many of them now speak a dialect made up of the Russian and Polish, are descended from the *Russini* or *Rousniaks*, who were thus denominated by the Poles to distinguish them from the *Roszieni*, *Moscowali* or Great Russians. Those who inhabit Hungary have been already mentioned, and the following account of their countrymen in Gallicia is taken from the work of a modern traveller. "I was struck with the appearance of the inhabitants, and convinced that they were originally a different horde of the Slavonic race. The Rousniacs are less civilized and less corrupt than the Gallicians; the same people are not so good husbandmen, but more frugal and laborious. The Gallician women never handle the distaff, while they tend their flocks, it is the common occupation of the Rousniaks.

* Cinnamus, lib. IV. c. VIII.

† *Pokutia, land of penitence, of exile*, according to Sarnicki, Chorog. Polon. But the etymology is refuted by the fertility of the country.

‡ Staravolski, p. 40.

The latter profess the Greek religion, their curates are permitted to marry, but being worse paid than the other ecclesiastics, and having besides to maintain a family, many are obliged, like St. Paul, to labour with their own hands. Their preaching is not in vain, their precepts are enforced by the example of an industrious and well-spent life. The churches are not widely different from those in the Catholic villages; three bells of different dimensions are suspended from each of them, and the simple inhabitants thus indicate the three persons in the Trinity, it is probable too that they do not believe in their equality, for the large bell is said to be in honour of God the Father, God the Son is represented by the second, and the third is emblematical of the Holy Ghost. Such is the explanation I obtained from the people themselves."

Churches.

The inhabitants of Pokutia have mixed less with the Poles than the other Rousniacks. The *Houcoles* or shepherds on the Carpathian mountains retain many barbarous customs, which have hitherto been imperfectly observed.

Houcoules.

Gallicia, like the whole of Poland, remained long in a state of barbarism, the consequence of civil discord and Turkish or Cossack invasions. Devastated towns and villages in ruins, are the monuments of former wars. The traveller is apt to imagine himself beyond the limits of Europe, he is nowhere sure of a bed, and is every where exposed to great privations. The beer in the country is a sort of turbid vinegar, the wine is perhaps as sour, and a glass of it cannot be purchased for less than a florin. The stranger may quench his thirst at the limpid and cold springs on the mountains, but bread is not to be had in the high districts, and the only articles that can be procured, are oaten cakes mixed with chaff, and ardent spirits, the poison of the Poles. Many go out of their way to gain a town, but they are not certain of being admitted into an inn, and those may consider themselves fortunate, who are allowed to dress their own victuals, or to purchase a few eggs for ten times their value.

State of the country.

The country has been improved under the Austrian

German colonies.

BOOK CXIV.

government, and since the settlement of the German colonists, who now amount to 72,000 individuals. Civilization has thus been advanced, but there are still many obstacles, which cannot be easily overcome. The peasants are ignorant and slothful, slavery seems to deprive them of intelligence and courage. All the land in the country is possessed by the nobility and a few free labourers. The wealthy lords are the proprietors of more extensive domains than many German principalities, but those to whom the care of their estates is committed, are for the most part men of broken fortunes, who have been forced to fly from Germany or Bohemia. The stewards rob their masters so effectually that they are enabled in the course of a few years to give up their office, or to purchase the lands which they formerly managed. Some princes and nobles are not deceived by these strangers, but they let their land to farmers, who exhaust the soil by raising from it in two years, what ought not to have been produced in a period of ten.

Peasantry.

Nobles.

The poorer nobles cultivate their own farms, and are perhaps as industrious as any class of men in Gallicia, but they are ill educated and ignorant of rural economy. Want of foresight or a desire of gain often tempts them to sacrifice the future to the present; forced harvests are reaped, and the ground remains long unproductive. The habits and patriarchal manners of the poor nobles may entitle them to respect, but otherwise, the only difference between the master and the peasant consists in the right of property which the one possesses over the person of the other. Such men are not likely to benefit their country, the wretched state of Gallicia is owing to the ignorance of the inhabitants, hands enough are not wanting to labour the fields. It unfortunately happens that the clergy are as bigoted and superstitious as any in Europe; to enlighten the curates is a hopeless task. The royal domains have been long ill cultivated; a better system is now introduced, and it is to be hoped that it may extend to other parts of the province. The Austrian ministers

may in time learn wisdom from experience; though anxious to promote the happiness of the people, they fear innovation, every foreign improvement, in short, whatever is not German. To perfect the work that is already begun, it might be necessary to improve and extend the system of education, to strengthen and develope the national institutions.

Progress of industry.

Considerable progress has been made in the different arts; linen is manufactured on the mountains and the Silesian frontiers; greater attention is now paid to the fineness of the cloth; though formerly coarse, it was of a good quality. The different woollen goods form another important branch, and the art of dying cotton is as well understood at Nawsie as in the Levant. Glass is exported from Lubaczow and other places; fifty forges have been erected in the neighbourhood of Wielizka, the iron is well wrought, and the same sort of industry is diffused in the high districts. The arts of dressing leather, whitening wax, distilling spirits, and making nitre and potashes, are sources of wealth in different towns. The exports are conveyed by the commercial road, the work of Joseph the Second, and one of immense value to the province. The Gallician nobles spend their money at home, few repair to the court at Vienna, or travel in foreign countries.

Exports.

The exports of Gallicia and Bukowine are principally consumed in Austria and Moravia; they amount to twenty millions of florins, and consist mostly of salt, grain, cattle, horses, raw and dressed hides, wool, wax, tallow, tobacco and lint. The total population of the province is not less than 3,800,000, and it furnishes recruits to eleven regiments of infantry, four of light cavalry, and a battalion of fusiliers. The maintenance of these troops is a great burden to the country, for the revenue seldom exceeds 10,000,000 imperial florins, (L.1,042,000) and it is always inadequate to the expenditure. Gallicia might surpass most states in industry and wealth; commerce is free, the taxes are moderate, and nature is lavish of her gifts. But the outlets for the redundant produce have been diminished

Military force.

Revenue.

BOOK CXIV.

since Prussia obtained the navigation of the Vistula, and the progress of civilization is retarded by the degraded state of the peasants, and the influence of Jewish usurers in almost all the towns.

Bukowine.

Bukowine is united to Gallicia under the official name of the *circle of Czernowitz*, but its provincial states are distinct, and its population is very different. It may be inferred from its name, which signifies the country of beech trees, that the climate is not the same. The picturesque sides of the Carpathians are covered with forests of beech, pine and fir trees; the vine grows on the low ground, and the valleys watered by the *Moldava*, the *Sereth* and the *Pruth* are fertile in fruit, pasturage and corn. Numerous salt springs, the gold carried down the Bistritza, lead mixed with silver, the copper of Poschoryta, and the iron of Iakobeny are the mineral riches of the country. *Suczawa*, once the residence of the Moldavian despots, and a town of 80,000 inhabitants in the 15th century, is not at present peopled by more than 5000. *Czernowitz* and *Sereth* are equally insignificant. The population of Bukowine amounts to 200,000 individuals, and most of them are *Moldovenis*, a branch of the Wallachians, members of the Greek church, and subject to the authority of their *boyars* or lords. German, Armenian, Jewish and even Magyar colonists are settled in the province. The *Philliponi* or *Lippowany* adhere to the ancient rites of the Russian church, but their ceremonies and tenets are imperfectly known. Harassed by the Tartars and the Russians, they were forced to leave the Crimea, and to implore the protection of Joseph the Second. The emperor granted them an asylum, and the people were soon distinguished by their probity, frugality and peaceful lives.

Climate, produce.

Towns.

Inhabitants.

Historical details.

Bukowine was the ancient country of the Moldavians. A Polish army of 80,000 men having besieged Suczawa in 1496, was repulsed and wholly defeated by the troops of the hospodar Stephen the Great. Twenty thousand nobles were taken prisoners, the conqueror bound some to the plough, and compelled others to plant beech trees on the field of battle. The beech is called the bloody wood by

the Wallachians, who believe that the Saviour's cross was made of it, and the Turks, probably for the same reason, use it in empaling their victims; hence the word Bukowine may also mean the land of blood. When the Austrians had invaded or retaken Gallicia, an able report was written by a superiour officer, conformably to the instructions of Joseph the Second. It results from the document, "that the possession of Bukowine is necessary to protect the Austrian provinces, which front Poland and Muscovy. The same country forms a line of military communication between Gallicia and Transylvania, the advanced bulwark of the empire, and gives Austria the command of the most advantageous positions, in the event of a war with the Turk or the Muscovite."* The above reasoning is correct, and the Austrians determined to keep the province which they had already conquered. The Turks consented to the occupation, because they expected the assistance of the emperor in the war against the Russians. The hospodar Ghika protested solemnly against the dismemberment of Moldavia, but the next day he was secretly beheaded, an event that revealed the policy of the Porte.

The principal divisions of former Poland, according to their actual names, have now been described. The great dutchy of Posen shall be more fully mentioned in another part of the work; it is too much connected with Prussia, (even in a geographical point of view,) to be included in the present chapter.

Polish language.

The Polish language is sprung from the Russian, the Bohemian, the Wend and Slavonic dialects of Illyria; but it resembles the Bohemian perhaps more than any other, and both are distinguished by harsh sounds and crowded consonants. The Polish, however, is not incompatible with harmony, but the difficulty of the pronunciation cannot be easily overcome by strangers; it is harmonious, when spoken by the natives, nay more, an imaginative writer has compared the conversation of Polish ladies

* See Schlœtzer, Stants-anzeigen, I. p. 38—59.

BOOK CXIV.

to the warbling of birds. The sonorous majesty of the Russian is more adapted for music, but the Polish is rich in grammatical forms, figures and inversions, and well fitted for every sort of style. Long neglected or rather superseded by the Latin, no attention was bestowed on it, but it has in later times become the language of poets, orators and fearless historians. The different dialects have not yet been distinguished with sufficient care. The Mazurake is said to abound in Lithuanian words, but it is probable that these words were used by the ancient Poles. The dialect of the Gorales is very harsh, it may perhaps be more closely connected with the Bohemian. The Upper Silesian and the dialect spoken by the Cassubes in Pomerania are branches of the Polish. Little is known concerning the transition from the same language to the Russian, in the eastern districts of Gallicia.

Origin of the Poles.

The mass of the Polish nation is descended from the ancient Leches, the same people as the Lygians of Tacitus, and the Licicavians of the middle ages. But the warlike and adventurous colonies of the Goths, particularly the Western or Visi-Goths, were settled at an early period on the banks of the Vistula; and formed perhaps in many places the dominant race. The clear complexion and the regular features of the Polish nobles seem to strengthen the supposition, which is almost confirmed by the title of the nobles, a title that is unknown in every other Slavonic language. The *szlachics* were partly composed of foreign conquerors, and identified in the course of ages with the native aristocracy, the *zemianin* or possessors of land.* It may be concluded from the nature of the population that many revolutions must have taken place in the country, that many warriors, such as *Krakus*, must have appeared among the Gothic hordes, before the shepherds and husbandmen chose *Piastus* for their king. The dates are not

Szlachics.

* *Szlachcic* is pronounced *schlagh-tchitch;* it is nearly synonymous with the French word *gentilhomme*, which differs from gentleman, in as much as it is only applied to nobles; the same term corresponds with the *shlatic* and *schlatic* of the German writers in the tenth century. *Linde's* Polish Dictionary.

preserved, but the history ought not for that reason to be considered fabulous, it is unfortunately too true, the appendage of dates is disregarded by barbarous tribes. The monuments of national worship, monuments that serve to illustrate the character of nations, have been lost in the chaos of revolutions. Gnesne, Cracow and Wilna are called sacred towns, but it is impossible to derive information from so vague a term, and no distinct attribute is attached to any of them. Peroun himself, the great Slavonic god, held no distinguished rank in the Polish mythology. Biel-Bog and Czernobog were adored by the Sorabes and Silesians, it cannot be affirmed that they were worshipped by the other Poles. *Iess*, says the historian Dlugoss, was the god of thunder; his name is certainly connected with others in the Celtic and Etruscan. *Dziewanna*, the goddess of life and youth, *Liada*, the god of war, *Lelo*, *Polelo* and many other Polish divinities are distinguished by their Slavonic names. *Nia*, the god of death and the abyss, who was worshipped by the people at Niamts in Silesia, and probably at Niemts in Moldavia, was feared by the eastern Slavonians. More distinct traces are left of the worship of the Wends or Slavi on the Baltic; their rich temples, numerous idols and less barbarous notions were ill adapted for the tribes in the interior of the continent. History preserves with capricious care, not the names of the great divinities, but those of all the *Zemopaci* or earthly spirits from the god of cherries and nuts, to the god that kindles and extinguishes the fire. Many of their names were derived from the ancient Lithuanian or some Slavonic dialect anterior to the Polish. The horde of gods that peopled the houses from the cellar to the dormitory, seem to have formed a part of a very early superstition in the north and east of Europe. Was the Polish mythology composed of several others? It might be rash to arrive at any conclusion, until the worship and its relation to other creeds be more fully examined; the boldest system-makers have been wise enough to suspend their judgment on the subject.

National divinities.

BOOK CXIV.

Discussion on the Sarmatians.

One important truth may be established, a truth of which several historical writers appear to have been ignorant. The Sarmatians were not the ancestors of the Poles. The former were conquering tribes that invaded Scythia or southern Russia, a great portion of the Ukraine, Gallicia and Moldavia, and governed these countries nearly three centuries. The natives were not expelled, but the victors, like the Turks, changed the names of the vanquished and tributary states. The first Sarmatians mentioned in history were sprung, according to Herodotus, "from young Scythians and Amazons or warlike women."* Whether that origin be fabulous or not, the father of history considered the Sarmatians, Scythian colonists, who inhabited the country on the east of the Tanais, perhaps between the lower Wolga and Caucasus, who spoke a Scythian dialect, corrupted by the language of their mothers, and retained several remarkable customs, among others, that of being accompanied in battle by women armed with two-edged axes. Hippocrates, a co-temporary of Herodotus, supposed the Sarmatians, a Scythian people that differed from the other Scythians, for their women used the bow and the javelin; but in other respects, his account of the Scythians is applicable to the Sarmatians. "The people are swarthy, short and fat, of a relaxed and phlegmatic temperament; the women are not fruitful, but their slaves being lean give birth to many children."† The Greeks were struck with their small and lively eyes, and compared them to those of lizards; hence the incorrect etymology of their name, which was corrupted into *Sauromates*. The Roman authors had better opportunities of observing the nation, and they rejected the Greek derivation.‡ The names of several Sarmatian tribes, as the *Thisomatæ*, *Iaxomatæ* and others, are distinguished by the same final syllables. It is almost certain

* Herod. IV. c. CX—CXVII.

† Hippocrates, de Aeribus, &c.

‡ Dionysius Periegetes calls them the *Sarmatæ*.

that these syllables had a common signification, and the meaning of *Madai*, Medes or men, is so obvious and occurs so frequently in the ancient languages of Media and Persia, that it can hardly fail of being admitted. The hypothesis accords well with the opinion of the ancients, who considered the Scythians and Sarmatians, a Median people. It has been seen in a former part of this work, that the Scythian words, which have been preserved, belonged perhaps to the Zend or to a dialect connected with it. The people subject to the empire of the Scythians, or exposed to their devastations, some of whom purchased protection by paying tribute, were the Slavonians and the Finns. It is comparatively of little consequence that they were then unknown in history by their present names.

Origin of the name.

A great revolution took place; Mithridates, the Asiatic Hannibal, formed the ambitious project of penetrating into Italy by the north-east, a project which was accomplished at a later period by the Cimbrian and Gothic nations.* The general excited the Sarmatians to cross the Tanais, and to overturn the Scythian empire. Their migrations commenced about the year 81 before the vulgar era, and were continued upwards of a century. The Sarmatians overran, laid waste and partly conquered all the countries bounded by a line drawn from the Tanais to the Transylvanian mountains, and by another line extending also from the Tanais, and terminating near the embouchure of the Vistula. Pliny alludes to these invasions, he says that "the Scythians have disappeared, their country is now inhabited by Germans and Sarmatians." It is difficult to imagine how compilers of history and geography could believe that the Sarmatians, "a swarthy race, an unfruitful people," occupied the immense space which Sarmatia covers on the ancient maps. As well may the names of Russia, Turkey and former Poland be considered the boundaries of distinct people, while they mark only the

Sarmatian migrations.

* Bayer, Conversiones Rerum Scythicarum, Memoirs of the Academy at Petersburg. Diodorus Siculus, lib. II. c. XLIII. p. 156. Edit. Wessel.

BOOK CXIV.

limits of empires. Is the Greek a Turk, the Magiar an Austrian, the Finn a Russian, or the Basque a Frenchman, were the Italians, Goths under Theodoric? The answer to these questions is not doubtful. In like manner, the Slavonic people between the Oder and the Vistula, or the *Lygii* in the plains, the *Mugilones* on the hills, the *Navarhales* in the marshy lands, the *Carpi*, *Biessi* and other tribes on the Carpathians, the *Venedes* or Wends in Prussia and Lithuania, the *Fenni* in Polesia and Black Russia, the other Finnic hordes in central Russia, retained their national existence, their language and customs, although they became for a time the subjects of the Sarmatians.

Extinction of the Sarmatians.

Had the Sarmatian empire a centre or principle of unity, or was it composed of independent *khanats*, feebly connected with each other? What provinces became the country of the Sarmatian colonists? When were their hordes confounded with the populous and continually increasing Slavonians, the fair people, the race indigenous to Europe? What share had the Goths in the later revolution? What was the fate of the Sarmatians that migrated after the destruction of their empire, and were protected by the Romans? Additional information may be derived from the consideration of these questions; but it ought first to be shown that the Sarmatians were a conquering tribe, distinct from the inhabitants of the countries over which they ruled.

Sarmatians of the fourth century.

It is thus that they are represented in history at the time of the Pannonian invasion, about the year 375. "The Sarmatians conquered by the Roman general Theodosius, were forced to implore the clemency of the emperor Valentinian. The deputies were presented before him, the prince heard them, and asked indignantly why better looking men had not been sent. The ambassadors answered that they were selected from the chosen men of their nation. "O unfortunate Rome, exclaimed Valentinian, when such abortions dare invade it!" At the same time, he struck his

hands, groaned loudly, and fell lifeless from a paroxysm of rage."*

Such were the *short, unwieldy* and *swarthy* Sarmatians of old Hippocrates. The Slavonians, as described by Procopius, were tall, well made and robust. They are so still. Mistaken vanity retains the banal phrase, and the Poles style themselves *the descendants of the illustrious Sarmatians.*

Statistical Table of Gallicia.

Census of 1818	3,760,319
Increase in six years at a half to the hundred	112,806
Population in 1825	3,873,125

Different Classes of the Inhabitants in 1817.

Families	889,334
Males	1,796,385
Females	1,920,307
Clergy	4,234
Nobles	31,006
Functionaries	4,420
Commercial class	11,513
Male peasants	353,419 (too low)

Nations in 1817.

Poles (in the western districts) . .	1,659,800
Rusniaks (in the eastern) . . .	1,689,650

* Strilter, Memoriæ, II. p. 29.—"His eyes, his voice, his colour, his gestures," says Gibbon, "expressed the violence of his ungovernable fury; and, while his whole frame was agitated with convulsive passion, a large blood vessel burst, and Valentinian fell speechless into the arms of his attendants."

Statistical Table of Gallicia continued.

Wallachians	192,000
Jews	205,000
Germans	72,000
Phillippones	8,800
Armenians	5,000
Zigeunes	2,000
Greeks	550

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES
0315020045

910
M29
v. 6